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ABSTRACT

GRADES OR AGES: Grade 8. SUBJECT MATTER: Geography and Anthropology. ORGANIZATION AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: The introductory material includes descriptions of geography and anthropology as disciplines, the basic course objectives, techniques for evaluating objectives and a student self-evaluation form. The guide covers six units: 1) "What Kind of Questions Do Geographers Ask?" 2) "The Growth of Cities"; 3) "In What Ways Does Man's Physical Environment Affect His Settlement Patterns?" 4) "Introduction to Anthropology"; 5) "The Geography of Culture Change"; and 6) "Thematic Unit--Hunger." The guide is lithographed and spiral bound with a soft cover. OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES: General objectives are included in the introductory material, and detailed objectives and activities are included for each unit. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: Reading references are given in each unit, together with worksheets, maps, transparency masters, and bibliographies. The appendix includes additional maps, worksheets, discussion material, and a resource bibliography. STUDENT ASSESSMENT: Suggestions for student assessment are given in the section on evaluating objectives. (MBM)

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an experimental program in geography and anthropology

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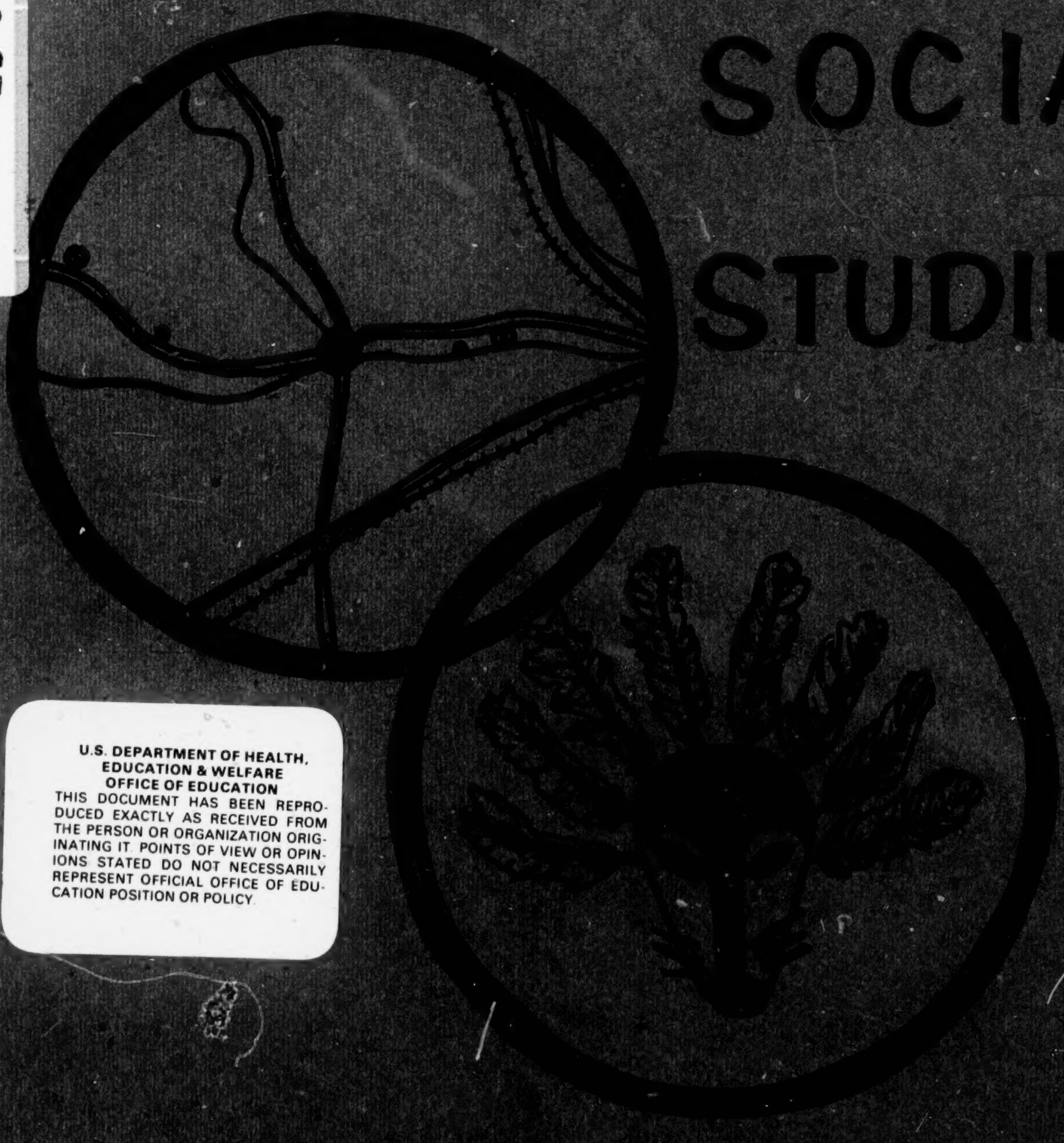
EIGHTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES



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FOREWORD

While this course of study originated as Special Project 56 and was specifically designed to provide a basis for an experimental program in geography and anthropology at Hubert Olson Junior High School it is also hoped that it may be useful in orienting all eighth grade social studies teachers to the concepts and methods of the "New Social Studies" as they may well apply to a total program to be developed in the school year 1968-1969.

The first step in developing this course was to define and identify the structure of geography and anthropology (main concepts, generalizations and theories). The second step was to identify meaningful objectives that could be measured and evaluated. The final step was to pick content that was both meaningful to the student and which fit the structure and objectives of the course.

Some of the ideas and methods used in writing this course were taken from various sources. Particular credit is due to Jan O. M. Broek and Fred Lukermann of the University of Minnesota for their ideas on geography, and Pertti Pelto and E. Adamson Hoebel, also of the University of Minnesota, for their ideas on anthropology. Many ideas on methodology and objectives were taken from Edwin Fenton's book, Teaching the New Social Studes, and Robert Marcotte, a geography teacher at Anoka High School.

It is the wish of the authors that this guide not be viewed as a finished product but as a skeletal outline that will be tested, evaluated, and added to during the year 1968-1969 at Hubert Olson Junior High School.

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INTRODUCTION

The study of geography has for too long been an "extended trip around the world" with little emphasis on the role of man and his culture in fashioning his environment. Too often also, the student's view of geography has been that geography is a static science, too heaped with dry, detailed, seemingly unrelated, information to be an active, attractive,intellectual challenge.

We feel that geography should focus on the world of man as it is today; that the student sees man as an active force, who through his culture views and shapes his way of life and environment. Too, we see the need for a meaningful geography course that is relevant to the major issues of our time such as urbanization, population problems, international politics, resource depletion, and cultural differences which breed misunderstandings and discrimination.

Recent thought in the social studies has put stress on the need to acquaint students with the behavioral sciences. In line with this thinking it has been decided that the eighth grade social studies course at Bloomington will emphasize geography and anthropology. In connection with this basic change in the format of the eighth grade course, it has also been decided that we will commit ourselves to the methods of discovery and inquiry in the teaching of these disciplines. We feel that these changes will produce a course of study that will be both interesting and meaningful to the student.

We also feel that our first concern in writing this new curriculum should be to define both geography and anthropology, and to identify the conceptual structure of each discipline. In doing this we have provided a framework around which we can build our entire course of study.

GEOGRAPHY AS A DISCIPLINE

Geography is a perspective or way of looking at man's experience on the earth's surface in its areal unity and diversity.

It is necessary that the geographer not only objectively measure the location and areal configuration of happenings on the earth's surface, but also know what man experienced and believed about his environs, for it is this alone that underlies his acts, which in turn is what gives character to place. Man, seeing his environment through the cultural prism of his beliefs, acts as a historic being; and place, as an event in human consciousness, becomes above all a cultural concept.

Geography is not an inventory of the contents of the earth's surface because there is nothing geographic about the contents. Geography is not a method because the method geographers use to research is also used by the other disciplines and is commonly called the "scientific method". The factor that distinguishes geography from the other social sciences is the point of view or perspective of the geographer. In order to gain an understanding of the places on the earth and their relationship to other places, the geographer must answer certain questions. It is the questions then that are geographic and not the method of research or the phenomena studied.

Geography also has a conceptual framework or structure that makes it unique among the social sciences. The conceptual framework gives the geographer his perspective which will lead him to the desired understandings.

Drawing from many sources, we have decided that the following concepts are the basis of geography:

1. Location: All phenomena on the earth can be identified in three basic ways.
    a. Site and situation
    b. Nominally (by name)
    c. Latitude and longitude

2. Distribution: Refers to sets of locations. These sets of locations can be studied in three ways.
    a. Pattern or the arrangement of locations in a distribution
    b. Density or the number of locations per unit of area
    c. Areal extent or the area being covered by the distribution

3. Areal association or internal coherence. The phenomena in an area exist together in association and are open to rational organization and comprehension. This internal consistency unites the phenomena into a whole. The relations between the phenomena are not the result of a single cause but through inquiry we can discover the nature of their relationship.

4. Spatial interaction. Locations on the face of the earth are interconnected. There is an organization of space on the earth into some functional order or system. This spatial interaction then depends on circulation, that is, on movement of messages, persons and goods. The situation of a place, in other words, its position in the web of circulation, is therefore of great importance in determining its character.

5. Theme of change or fluidity. Areal associations and spatial interaction of phenomena are not static relationships. Viewed in the historical perspective each place has its successions of pattern, expressed in dominant as well as recessive characteristics. Regions can be viewed as expanding and contracting entities, perhaps even migrating ones. The geographer is concerned with change and understanding its degree of regularity, its rate, and its direction.

6. Regionality. Variations in areal associations of phenomena give rise to different areas or regions. It is a device to comprehend likenesses and differences on the earth's surface. A region has some kind of internal homogeneity which distinguishes it from surrounding areas, and it is always defined in terms of specific criteria.

7. Scale. The above concepts are equally applicable to small and large areas. The scale of investigation makes a great difference in the generalizations that can be drawn from observations. The nature of the problem should determine the scale of the inquiry, and the latter should in turn guide the degree of magnitude of the generalization.

8. Cultural landscape. Each culture tends to view its physical habitat differently. A society value system, goals, organizations, and level of technology determine which elements of the land are prized and utilized.

ANTHROPOLOGY AS A DISCIPLINE

There are two main branches of anthropology recognized today, physical and cultural. It is the latter that will be stressed in our course of study.

Cultural anthropology is the study of the social behavior of man and the products of such behavior. It is, therefore, a way of looking at man in an attempt to understand his social behavior. The concept which gives the anthropologist his perspective is the concept of culture. Culture can be defined as the sum total of integrated learned behavior patterns which are characteristic of the members of a society and which are therefore not the result of biological inheritance. Contingent on the concept of culture are several other concepts which give the anthropologist his perspective of man.

The following is a summary of these key concepts which we have drawn from several sources.

1. Variability of culture. People everywhere shape their beliefs and behavior in response to the same fundamental human problems and needs. The beliefs and behaviors may vary greatly from one group or society to the next, but each culture is logical and coherent in its own terms, given the basic assumptions and knowledge available to the specific community.

2. Ethnocentrism. The way man perceives his experiences is strongly influenced by his cultural heritage, and he tends to view his own way of life as the most reasonable and natural.

3. Force of conformity. Although customs vary from society to society, in any given society there is pressure to conform to the prevailing practices. The degree of compulsion varies with the significance attached to the behavior in question. The matters on which the group is quite rigid and compulsive are regarded as mores or the moral interests of society.

4. Culture change. Each culture is made up of an interconnected network of behavior patterns and no system is ever completely static. A change in one area of culture will tend to lead to changes in other parts of the system. In simple societies the change is minimal but in modern, industrialized societies change is very rapid. The broader the cultural base the more likelihood there will be for change.

5. Cultural lag. Culture that is undergoing rapid change may not do so evenly in all parts. Some parts may experience considerable change, other parts little or no change. Those that don't change show cultural lag.

BASIC COURSE OBJECTIVES

The basic rationale for any educational experience should be the objectives that the instructors have in mind. We must know clearly what the set of educational objectives and value commitments the covering of a specific content will achieve. Also, although we are concerned here with planning a curriculum for the eighth grade age group, we are primarily concerned with the individual and his needs, goals, values, interests, and desires because each member of the group accepts, rejects, and learns as an individual.

The objectives of our course can be put into three main groups. The first objectives will be concerned with the knowledge to be gained by the student. Knowledge,as defined here, involves the recall of specifics and universals, the recall of methods and processes, or the recall of a pattern, structure, or setting. The second objectives will deal with the skills and abilities which are organized modes of operation and generalized techniques for dealing with materials and problems. The third, and final set of objectives, and perhaps the most important, are the affective objectives which emphasize a feeling, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection.

I. Knowledge to be gained.

    A. Knowledge of specific information regarding geography and anthropology.
        1. Terminology.
            a. Geographic.
            b. Anthropologic
        2. Factual information.
            a. Geographic.
            b. Anthropologic.

    B. Knowledge of the perspective of reality of the geographer and anthropologist.
        1. The way which geographers and anthropologists present their ideas (maps, case studies, etc.)
        2. Knowledge of the parts of reality that the geographer and anthropologist deal with.
        3. Knowledge of the criteria used by the geographer and anthropologist to judge facts, principles, opinions and conduct.
        4. Knowledge of the method used by the geographer and anthropologist to investigate problems and phenomena.

    C. Knowledge of the main concepts, generalizations and theories of geography and anthropology.
        1. Concepts.
            a. Geography.
                1) Location.
                2) Distribution.
                3) Areal association or internal coherence.
                4) Spatial interaction.

            - 5) Theme of change or fluidity.
            - 6) Regionality.
            - 7) Scale.
            - 8) Cultural landscape.
        - b. Anthropology.
            - 1) Variability of culture.
            - 2) Ethnocentrism.
            - 3) Force of conformity.
            - 4) Culture change.
            - 5) Cultural lag.
    - 2. Generalizations.
        - a. Geography
        - b. Anthropology.
    - 3. Theories.

II. Intellectual abilities and skills.

A. Comprehension of geographic and anthropologic materials.
- 1. The ability to translate information on graphs and maps into words.
- 2. The ability to interpret various types of data.
- 3. The ability to extrapolate or extend ideas beyond given information in order to determine implications, consequences, corollaries, effects, etc.

B. The ability to apply anthropology and geography concepts, generalizations, and theories to concrete situations.

C. The ability to analyze social studies material.
- 1. Analysis of the elements.
    - a. Assumptions.
    - b. Facts or opinion.
- 2. The ability to analyze the relationships between parts of social studies material (such as checking the consistency of hypotheses with given information).
- 3. The ability to recognize the organization of principles in social studies (such as recognizing techniques used in propaganda and advertising).

D. The ability to synthesize social studies material to form a coherent whole.
- 1. The ability to communicate by writing or speaking ideas, feelings, and experiences to others.
- 2. The ability to propose a plan to solve a problem.
- 3. The ability to make generalizations based on specific materials.

E. The ability to evaluate materials using his own standards or those given to him in the course.
- 1. The ability to judge the accuracy of the information given.
- 2. The ability to judge the material in relation to the main concept, generalizations, and theories of geography and anthropology.

III. Affective attitudes.

A. Develop a sensitivity to geographic and anthropologic phenomena and stimuli.
   1. Develop student awareness that there are geographic and anthropologic phenomena and stimuli.
   2. Develop student willingness to give attention to these stimuli and phenomena.
   3. Develop student selectivity of attention to the different types of stimuli and phenomena.

B. Develop student response to geography and anthropology.
   1. Develop an affinity for geography and anthropology (willingness to study).
   2. Develop a willingness to respond on his own to stimuli (read, make maps, etc.).
   3. Develop a satisfaction in responding (enjoyment of reading, making maps, doing projects, etc.).

C. Valuing.
   1. Develop student acceptance of a value. (This means developing a consistency of response to geography and anthropology materials.)
   2. Develop the preference for a value, such as, assuming responsibility, deliberately following critical thinking procedures, etc.
   3. Develop a commitment to certain values, such as a faith in the power of reason and in methods of experiment and discussion.

D. Organization of values
   1. Develop the conceptualization of values to the point where the student sees how new values relate to ones he already holds.
   2. Develop an organized value system. The learner can bring together a complex of values into an ordered relationship with one another.

E. Characterization by a value or value complex.
   1. Develop a generalized set of values by which the student guides his action.
   2. Characterization by a value system (develop a consistent philosophy of life).

BASIC COURSE OBJECTIVES - GEOGRAPHY AND ANTHROPOLOGY

KNOWLEDGE	ABILITIES AND SKILLS	AFFECTIVE ATTITUDES
Specific information -Terminology -Factual	Comprehension of the meaning of the materials of the disciplines	Development of sensitivity to the phenomena and stimuli of the disciplines
Perspectives of reality	Application of concepts, generalizations and theories to concrete situations	Development of an affinity for the disciplines
Main concepts - Geography -Location -Distribution -Areal association or internal coherence -Spatial interaction -Theme of change or fluidity -Regionality -Scale -Cultural landscape	Ability to analyze -Elements -Relationships -Principles	Development of consistent values
	Ability to synthesize	Conceptualization of values so they may be organized into a system
	Ability to evaluate	Development of values complexes consistent with the concepts
Main concepts - Anthropology -Variability of culture -Ethnocentrism -Force of conformity -Culture change -Cultural lag		
Generalizations regarding the concepts of geography and anthropology		
Theories regarding geography and anthropology		

TECHNIQUES FOR EVALUATING OBJECTIVES

Evaluation of the objectives of this course of study is a valuable and essential part of the learning process. It provides the open-endedness to learning which is so essential to learning. By using evaluation, the teacher helps the individual and the group assess their acquired skills and learnings but immediately applies this assessment to new and more complex learnings.

The scope of evaluation is wide and may be applied to the individual, the group, the process, or the total program. Because it is difficult to isolate any of these, it would seem that the evaluation should be concerned with all of the involved inter-relationships.

Techniques that we will use to measure the assimilation of skills and abilities and affective objectives by the students will be the following:

A. Self evaluation.

1. Student folders:
   Student folders should be kept for each student. Samples of student work should be kept so that the student may make self-assesment as he compares work as the year progresses.
2. Rating scale:
   This should be filled out by the student just prior to a student-teacher conference; the contents of which will be discussed during the conference. Then it should be filed inside the student folder.

B. Student evaluation of small group.

1. Inner-outer circle:
   Half of the small group will assume the position of a circle for the reason of discussion of a pertinent topic. The other half of the small group will assume the position of an outer circle with each person in the outer circle listening only to the participant directly in front of him. He should be alert for suggestions on how the person he is observing could improve his participation.
2. Small group criticism of the group:
   Periodically the small group should be given the opportunity to discuss the manner in which the group handles the discussion of a problem. The central topic should be, how can we improve our discussion techniques individually and as a group? It would seem that an informal atmosphere in this session is necessary to encourage a free discussion. It is conceivable in a session like this that some criticism might be directed at the teacher as to how he handles the small group sessions.

C. Teacher-student conference (One or two a year).

1. During the conference the teacher would use this opportunity to give personal attention to the student and his progress

shown by material within his folder. This time could be used also for a short discussion of projects completed by the student, and possibly define any misconceptions he might have included in the work. Also, it is an opportunity to give the student a "pat-on-the-back" on a personal basis.

2. The conference also presents an opportunity for the teacher to assess attitudes and changing attitudes from the conversation of the student. Admittedly this skill must be developed by the teacher, but nevertheless, this conference would present an opportunity to assess the effect of the stated objectives of the units on the student.

D. Student-made tests.

From time to time the teacher could make use of student-made tests. This technique causes the student to assess his knowledge of facts, listening skills, study skills, comprehension of main concepts and other facets of the learning process.

E. Teacher observation.

The alert teacher will seize the opportunity afforded in the small and large group (especially the former) to observe and evaluate the continual growth of the student and the group toward mastery of the objectives of the course. Although large numbers of students are involved, the concerned and alert teacher can use his observation of the student as a valuable contribution to the total evaluation picture. Any information about individuals within the group that the teacher gains in this manner can be discussed with the student at an opportune moment or at the time of the student-teacher conference.

F. Teacher-made tests

You will note that tests used within this course of study are varied in character. However, we feel committed to the type of teacher-made test that is essentially subjective in nature that will cause the student to recall general principles and concepts rather than isolated, seemingly non-related facts.

G. Standardized tests

The standardized tests given during the junior high school years should be relied upon as important instruments in evaluating the social studies program. These tests include:

1. Iowa Tests of Basic Skills - given at the beginning of grade seven and at the beginning of grade eight.
2. Iowa Tests of Educational Development - given at the beginning of the ninth grade.

Name____________________

Teacher____________________

Section____________________

STUDENT SELF-EVALUATION FORM

Directions: To the best of your ability, rate yourself on each of the following questions. On this scale 1 represents the maximum growth and 5 represents the least growth.

KNOWLEDGE:	Pre-test	1st sem.	2nd sem.
Do you feel that you have increased your knowledge of:			
1. geographic and/or anthropologic terminology?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. factual information about geography and anthropology?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. how geographers and anthropologists present their ideas (maps, case studies, graphs, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. how geographers judge fact from opinion?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. how the geographer and/or anthropologist approaches and solves a problem?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6. principles and concepts (ideas) of geography and/or anthropology?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7. theories put forth by geographers and anthropologists to attempt to explain certain phenomena in the world?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS:			
Do you feel that you have increased:			
8. your ability to read: interpret, and transfer information on maps and graphs into words?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9. your ability to interpret geographic and anthropologic materials?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10. your ability to extend and apply learned concepts and principles of geography and anthropology to concrete situations?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11. your ability to analyze and synthesize social studies material to see the concepts and fit them together to see the whole situation?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12. your ability to judge social studies material as to source, relevancy, and accuracy?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

AFFECTIVE OBJECTIVES:	Pre-test	1st sem.	2nd sem.
Do you feel that you have developed:			
13. a sensitivity to geographic and anthropologic materials (books, maps and graphs, films, case studies, artifacts, human behavior patterns, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14. a sensitivity to other people and culture?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15. your ability to put yourself in the place of another person (empathy) to understand his position?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
16. a faith in the power of reason and in methods of experiment and discussion?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
17. an understanding of what human value is and how the value system of a society functions?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
18. an understanding of the effect of the value complex of a society on the individual in developing a personal consistent philosophy of life?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
19. a personal set of values by which you can live?	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

UNIT I

WHAT KINDS OF QUESTIONS DO GEOGRAPHERS ASK?

UNIT I - WHAT KINDS OF QUESTIONS DO GEOGRAPHERS ASK?
A Study of Bloomington

OBJECTIVES

I. Understandings.

   A. Geography is a perspective or way of looking at man's experience on the earth's surface in its areal unity and diversity.

   B. The main concepts or central ideas, which give the geographer his point of view are location (site and situation), spatial interaction, areal association, fluidity, the cultural landscape, regionality, distribution, and scale. (Refer to definition of geography.)

   C. Geography can be defined in terms of the type of questions that geographers ask about reality and not in terms of what is studied.

II. Skills.

   A. The ability to translate information on maps into words.
      1. The ability to find directions on a map.
      2. The ability to locate a place using the grid system.
      3. The ability to read a physical map.
      4. The ability to recognize the different types of distortion on map projections.

   B. The ability to apply geographic concepts to Bloomington and the metropolitan area.

   C. The ability to recognize the organization of geographic concepts to form a coherent point of view.

   D. The ability to listen and take notes on important material in large group lecture.

   E. The ability to effectively communicate verbally with students and teachers in small group.

   F. The ability to effectively gather and interpret geographic data on independent study time.

III. Affective attitudes.

   A. Develop student awareness of geographic point of view.

   B. Develop student willingness to give attention in large group, small group, and independent study to geography.

   C. Develop student alertness to geographic materials and concepts so that he can distinguish them from others.

CONTENT

I. Location.

   A. Nominal - name of school and name of city as examples.

   B. Grid system.
      1. Use of seating in auditorium.
      2. Use of street system of city.
      3. Use of latitude and longitude.

   C. Site and situation - use of the auditorium.

II. Areal association and spatial interaction.

   A. Relation of things in the city.

   B. Relation of city to metropolitan area and rest of the world.

III. Fluidity.

   Maps of the city from different points in history - 1800, 1850, 1900, 1950, and 1968.

IV. Cultural landscape.

   Narratives describing city from the points of view of people at different points in history.

   A. 1815 - Indian.
   B. 1890 - Early settler.
   C. 1968 - Home builder.

V. Region

   Statistical information on the sale of season tickets by the Minnesota Twins.

TEACHING PROCEDURES

GENERALIZATION - The main concepts or central ideas which give the geographer his point of view are location (site and situation), spatial interaction, areal association, fluidity, the cultural landscape, regionality, distribution, and scale.

I. What is the geographer's perspective?

   A. Location.
      1. Large group activities:
         a. Show a series of slides zeroing in from the earth, to continent, to nation, to state, to metropolitan area, to Bloomington, to school, to the auditorium.

b. Hand out seating chart of auditorium with student's seat x'd. Student's confusion will illustrate the meaning of "where" to the geographer.

c. How does the grid system help the geographer determine "where"? (Lecture)

d. The student's place or seat and the relationship of student's seat to the stage or the auditorium to the school should help the student determine the meaning of site and situation to the geographer.

2. Small group activities:
   a. Discussion: "How were you able to distinguish the 'where' of your seat in the auditorium?" Does your particular seat have any advantages over another seat in the auditorium? What is the relationship of your seat to the speaker or stage? Can you distinguish any relationship or interaction between your location and the speaker or stage?

   b. Question: How does the geographer answer the question of "where"? (Explain grid - site - situation - nominal location.)

3. Independent study activities:
   Complete the type of grid system used in determining location within the junior high auditorium.

B. Areal association and spatial interaction.
   1. The areal phenomena of Bloomington exist together in association and are open to rational organization and comprehension.

   2. The location of Bloomington to other areas on the earth's surface is interconnected and inter-related and areas interact together.

   3. Large group activities:
      Is there a coherent pattern to the location of goods and services in Bloomington? Show with overlays the locations of principal secondary schools, theaters, parks, and shopping centers.

   4. Small group activities:
      a. Discussion of Independent Study, Project 1 (Grid system of auditorium).

      b. Discussion: Do people live where they work? Are people in Bloomington dependent on other localities in the metropolitan area for employment, goods, and services? Where do your parents work? Where do they buy their goods and services? Are products produced in Bloomington and consumed outside the metro area?

Question: What has this discussion shown us about Bloomington and the metropolitan area? Would this hold true with cities or countries in other areas?

5. Independent study activities:

   What is the pattern by which we determine the location of a place within Bloomington? What is the grid system? (To be discussed in small group.) Make a list of places in Bloomington for the student to locate on his map of Bloomington.

C. How long are places and things related to each other and what is the rate and trend of change - fluidity?

1. Areal associations and spatial interaction of phenomena are not static relationships but constantly undergoing change at varying rates of modification.
   a. Large group activities:
      Is the areal association and spatial interaction of a place a static phenomena?

      Use five transparencies of Bloomington in overlay fashion depicting the following periods:
      1800 (as Indian territory)
      1850 (as stop-off place from Fort Snelling to the Minnesota Valley)
      1900 (township and existing grid of streets)
      1950 (small town with existing but growing grid of streets)
      1968 (large and growing city)

      Question: Has the growth of Bloomington been at an even, constant rate of growth? If not, during what period was the greatest rate? Can you see any reason for what you determined?

   b. Small group activities:
      Discussion of the question posed above in the lecture.

      Question: What factors must a geographer keep in mind about the relation of places and things in earth space?

D. What influences the way in which a person views and uses his environment? ...The cultural landscape.

1. Each culture tends to view its physical habitat differently. A society's value system, goals, organization, and level of technology determine which elements of the land are prized and utilized.
   a. Large group activities:
      Have three students, dressed in a fitting costume, deliver the following narrations of the points of view of their cultural environment.

1815 (Indian) "The Dakota brave stood on the wooded bluff outside his summer home. The cool breezes were blowing from the north as he looked down the hillside toward the site of his winter home close to the bank of the Minnesota River. There his home and family would be sheltered from the cold winds in the winter. He thought of his winter activities, fishing and hunting, and of the beauties of nature in his homeland."

1890 (Settler, Bloomington) "Dad slapped the old mare on the rump, and he, the mare and buggy, and I, ambled slowly down the dirt road which wound across the bleak open prairie. Suddenly he slowed the mare near a clump of poplars and we talked. He said that this land here was all right, but some men had worked hard clearing it of timber and pulling the remaining stumps. Soon, he said, land lying farther down the Minnesota River Valley would be opened and we would go there. This land would be flat, rich, virgin prairie largely devoid of trees. After the initial struggle to turn the sod, the rich black soil would bring forth countless harvests of golden wheat. Farmsteads would be few and far between; friends and neighbors widely scattered, but someone must make a start. It would not always be this way for more people would come. We would go."

1968 (Homebuilder, Bloomington)
(Ad from Minneapolis Tribune) -

SELECT YOUR HOME ON ONE OF FIFTY BEAUTIFUL HOMESITES

"If you've been looking for the perfect homesite, look no further. This is it. Orrin Thompson is opening a beautiful new section of rolling, wooded acreage in Riverview. Fifty new lots, that's all there will be in this new addition. And they are beautiful! A quiet lane winds down through the picturesque, hilly area, with tall, mature, shade trees on each side as you enter. Hundreds of other trees of many varieties, including hardy evergreens, are flourishing throughout this addition. Orrin Thompson is planning the winding roads and walks to save every tree possible and to retain the quiet charm of this wooded area.

"Another nice plus---the new grade school is a hop, skip, and a jump from the entrance. And you can actually see the new Junior College through the trees. It's right on the river.

"Drive out today. Wooded areas like this area are a rare find these days, so come early so you can choose the site you want for your new home."

Question: Do these three people view the same environment at three differing times in the same way?

Are each prizing the same factors in the landscape?

If not, what causes their different points of view?

b. Small group activities:
Discussion of question posed in the large group session above.

Question: What influences the way man uses and views his environment? ...(Society's value system, goals, organization, and level of technology.)

E. What tool or device does the geographer use to categorize and put in order the almost limitless variety of physical and cultural phenomena that exist upon the earth? ...Regionalization.

1. The regional concept is an intellectual device to comprehend the likenesses and differences on the earth's surface.
2. A region is an areal generalization always defined in terms of specific criteria.
3. A region has some kind of internal homogeneity which distinguishes it from surrounding areas.
   a. Large group activities:
   Show a film on regionalization or map skills.
   b. Small group activities:
      1) What device can we use to make the study of the earth's space more orderly and coherent for the geographer? Then make the map assignment for the mapping of the Twin's season ticket sales on the scale of the state drawing power of the Twins. This project would be done on Independent Study and discussed at the next small group meeting. Teacher and students will set criteria to be mapped from the statistical information sheet handed out (i.e., counties with 300 or more season ticket holders, color red; counties with 100 to 300 season ticket holders, color brown; and counties with 1 to 99 season ticket holders, color green).

      2) Discussion of the above map project. What do the counties that you colored with each color have in common? ...Homogeneity.

      In the counties colored brown, does each have the same number of ticket holders, or do they just generally meet the criteria that we set down?

      Can you think of any use for a map with this type of information?

Is it useful to everyone?

As a Twin's executive, what could you deduct from the information that you have plotted?

Question: What device or tool does the geographer use to put in order the huge amount of limitless phenomena that exists upon the earth? ...The region.

c. Independent study activities:
See Number 1 under small group activities.

CONTRACT - UNIT I - WHAT KINDS OF QUESTIONS DO GEOGRAPHERS ASK?

READINGS

Past

1. Site of Bloomington, The Making of a Suburb - An Intellectual History of Bloomington. pp 1 - 12 (High - High average)
2. History of Minneapolis and Hennepin County - Bloomington. p 1 to middle of p 2 (Slow)
3. The Pond Brothers. pp 1 - 8 entire pamphlet (Average and low)

Today

1. Bloomington by Howard Kyllo. Entire pamphlet (Average and above)
2. Peripheral Relationships. pp 1 - 9 (Average and above - All; Lows - pp 1, 8, 9)
3. Economic Study - Bloomington, Minnesota.

pp 1 - 7	(High and average)
pp 1, 2	(Lows)
pp 11-14	(High and average)
pp 11,13	(Low end)

PROJECT - INDEPENDENT STUDY

"Bloomington can become a self-sufficient community providing all municipal services (police, sewage, water, etc.) to its residents."

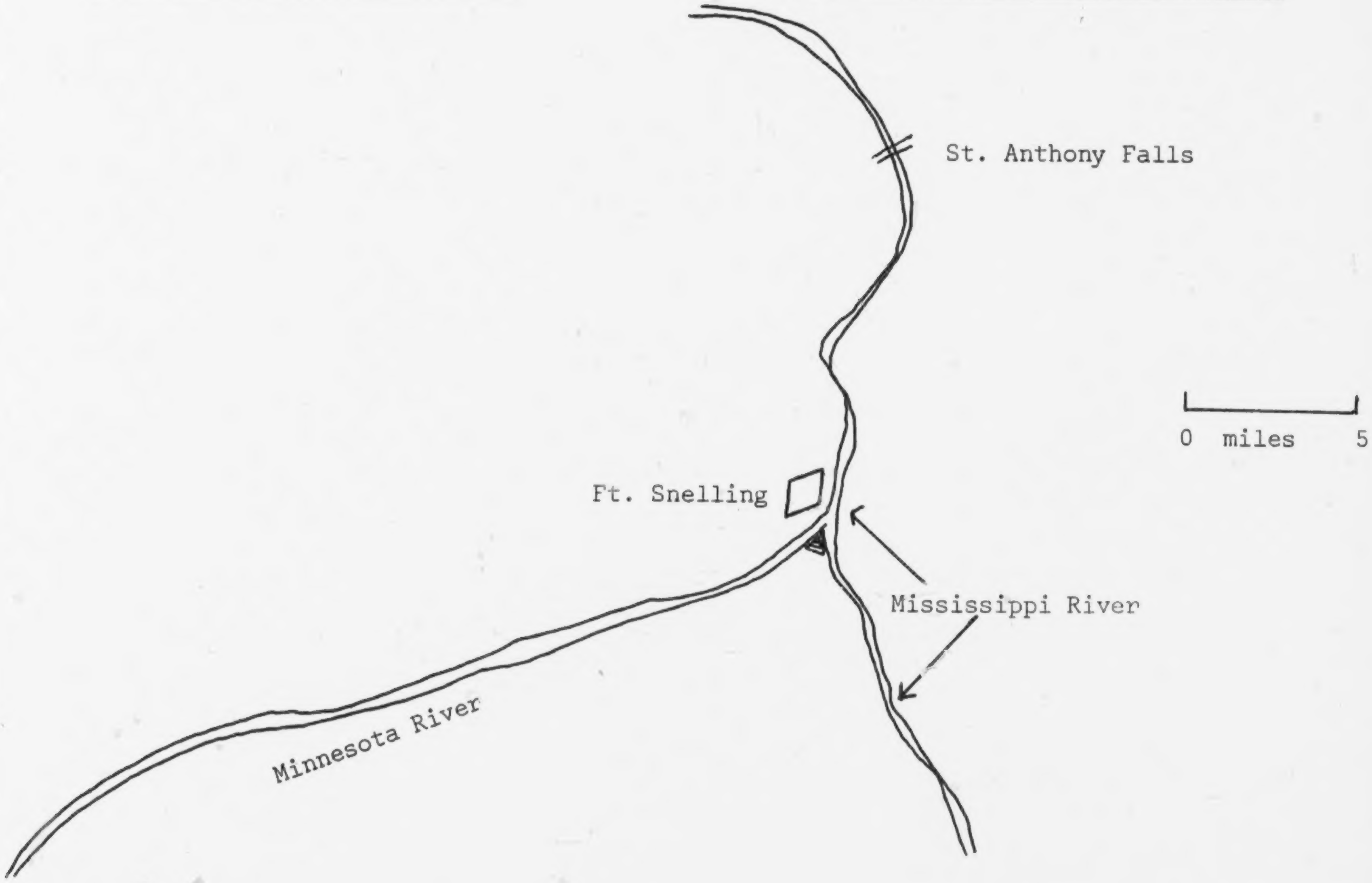
Do you agree or disagree with this statement? In a short paper (no less than 500 words) defend your position on this question. Be sure to include facts to back up your position.

To the student: Ideas for this project may be found in the paperback book, Peripheral Relationships, pp 48 - 51.

UNIT I

"C" INDEPENDENT STUDY PROJECT

NAME______________________________
SECTION____________________________
TEACHER____________________________



In 1819 the site for the building of a fort in the Minnesota Territory was picked at the place where the Minnesota and Mississippi Rivers joined (confluence). The site had a high bluff which overlooked both river valleys. This was Fort Snelling. A few years later the city of Minneapolis was founded at St. Anthony Falls.

Question: If the site of Fort Snelling was considered the best spot for settlement in 1819, how do you explain the fact that the largest city in Minnesota (Minneapolis) was founded further upstream on the Mississippi River and not at or around Fort Snelling?

Directions: Answer this question in a paragraph and be sure to use facts to support your answer.

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS FOR UNIT I

1. Diagram - The Hubert Olson Junior High School Auditorium

2. Series of overlays on land use in Bloomington

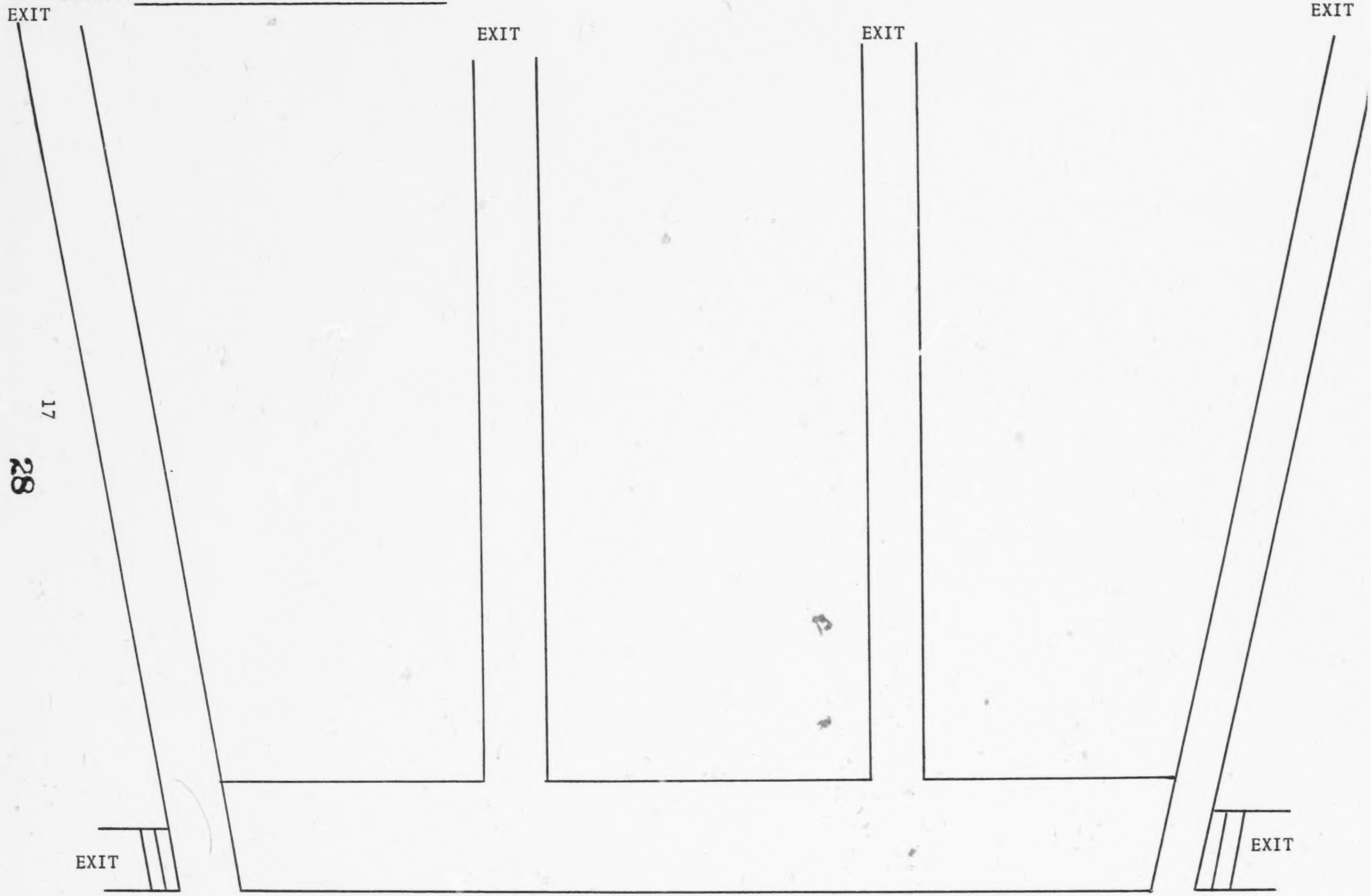
    a. Commercial use
    b. Industrial use
    c. Schools
    d. Parks and golf courses

3. Series of overlays on transportation patterns through Bloomington's history

    a. Bloomington 1800 (Indian Territory)
    b. Bloomington 1850
    c. Bloomington 1900
    d. Bloomington 1950
    e. Bloomington 1968

NAME______________________________

SECTION___________________________


EXIT
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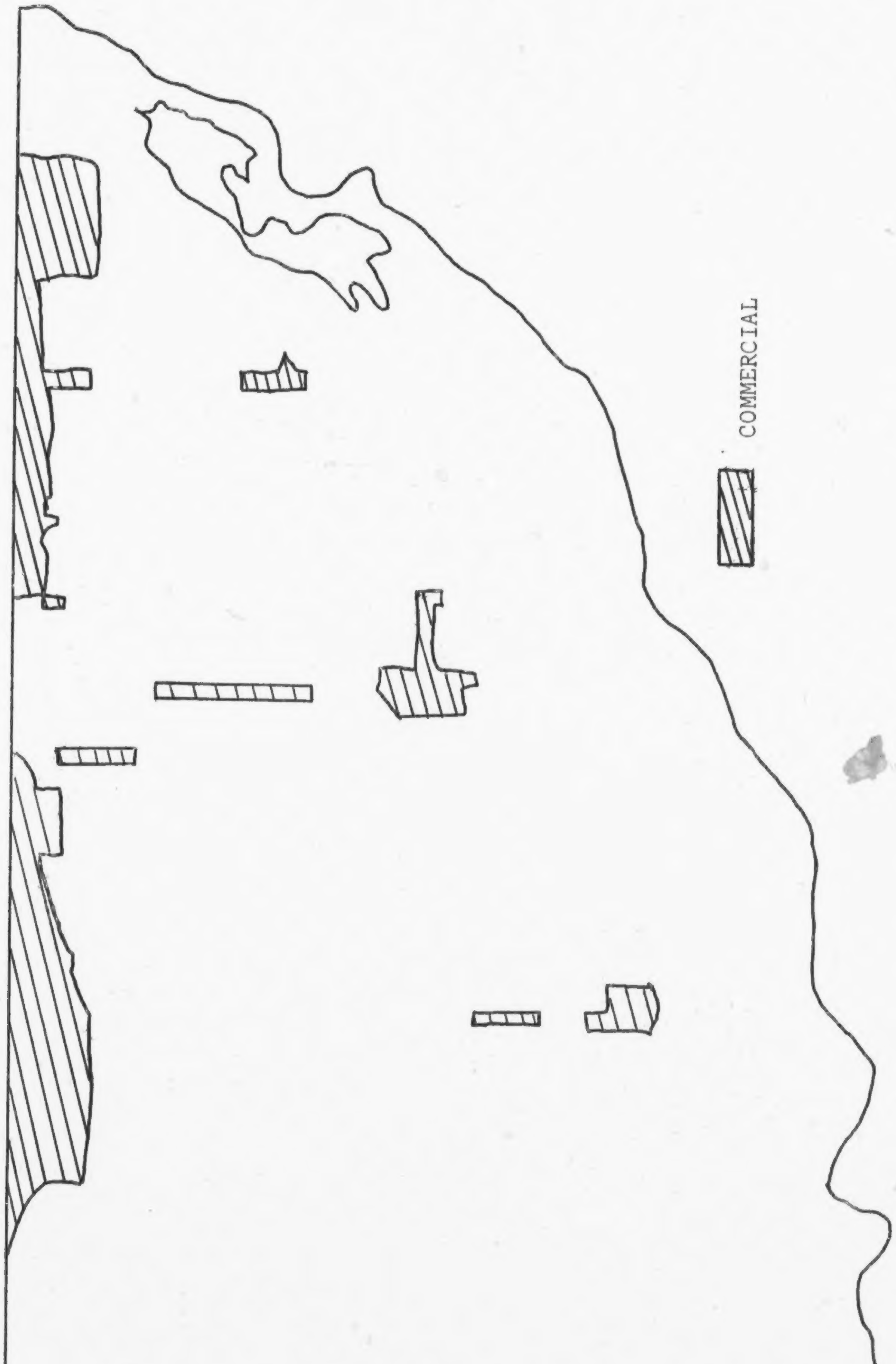
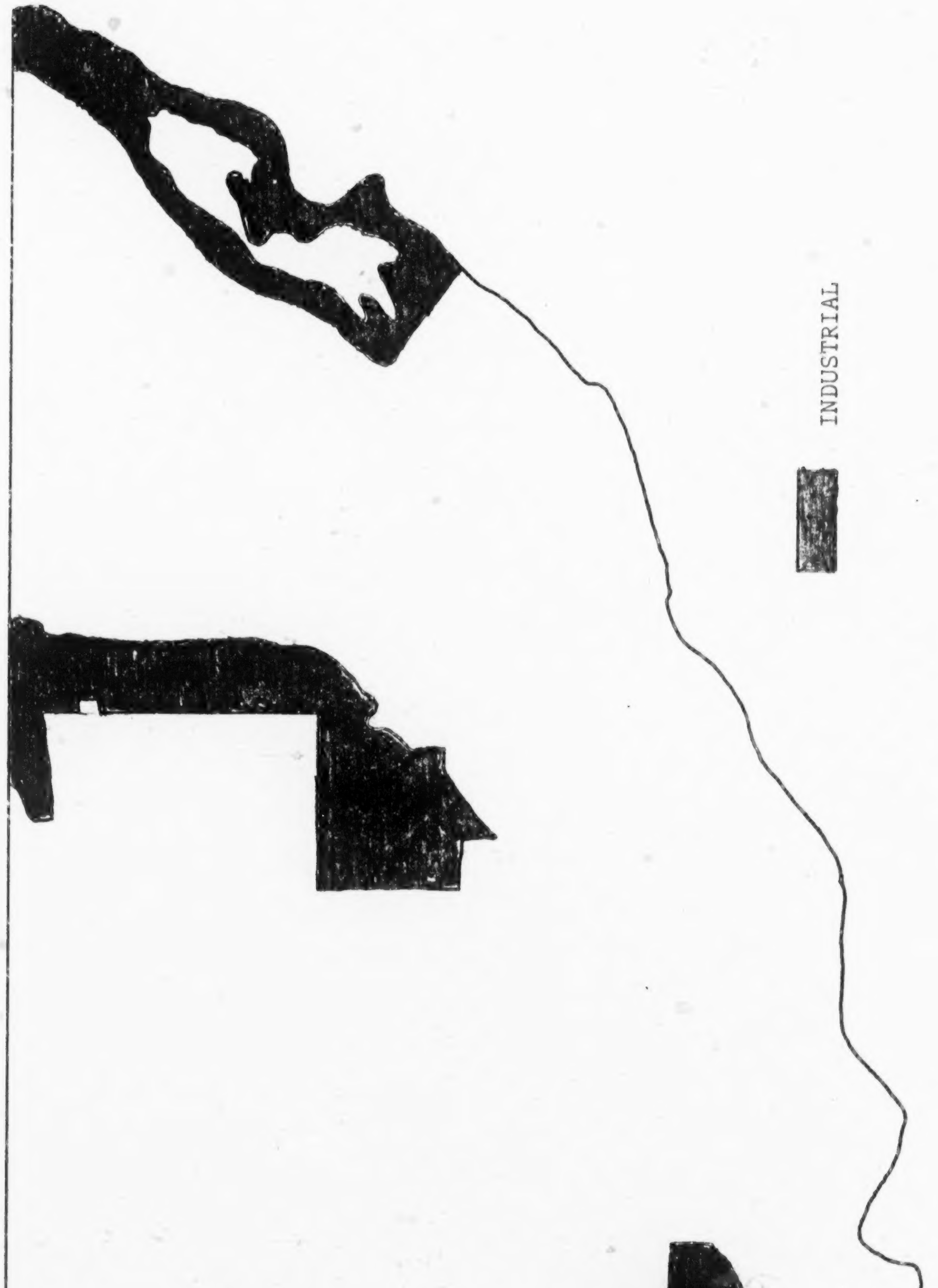
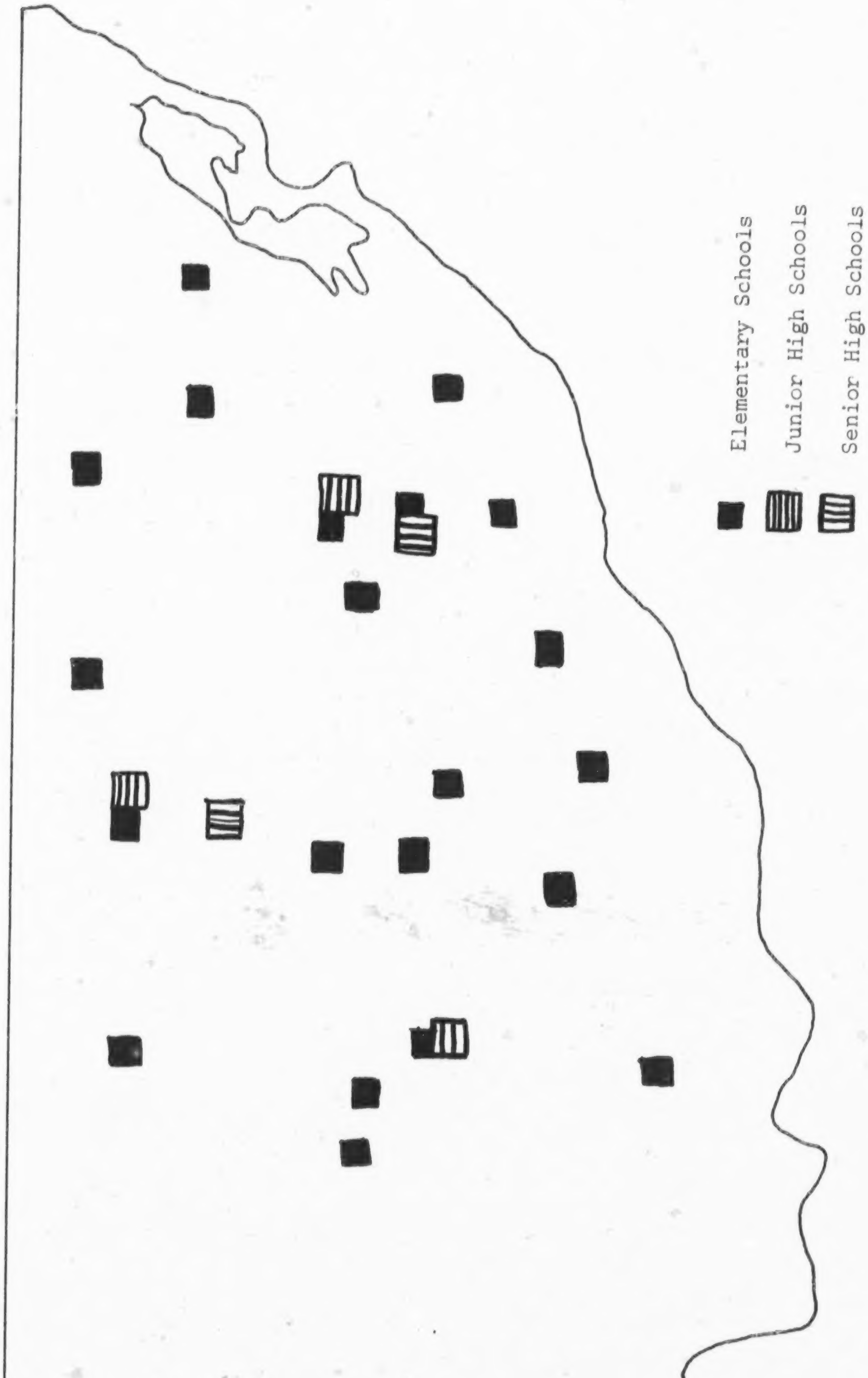
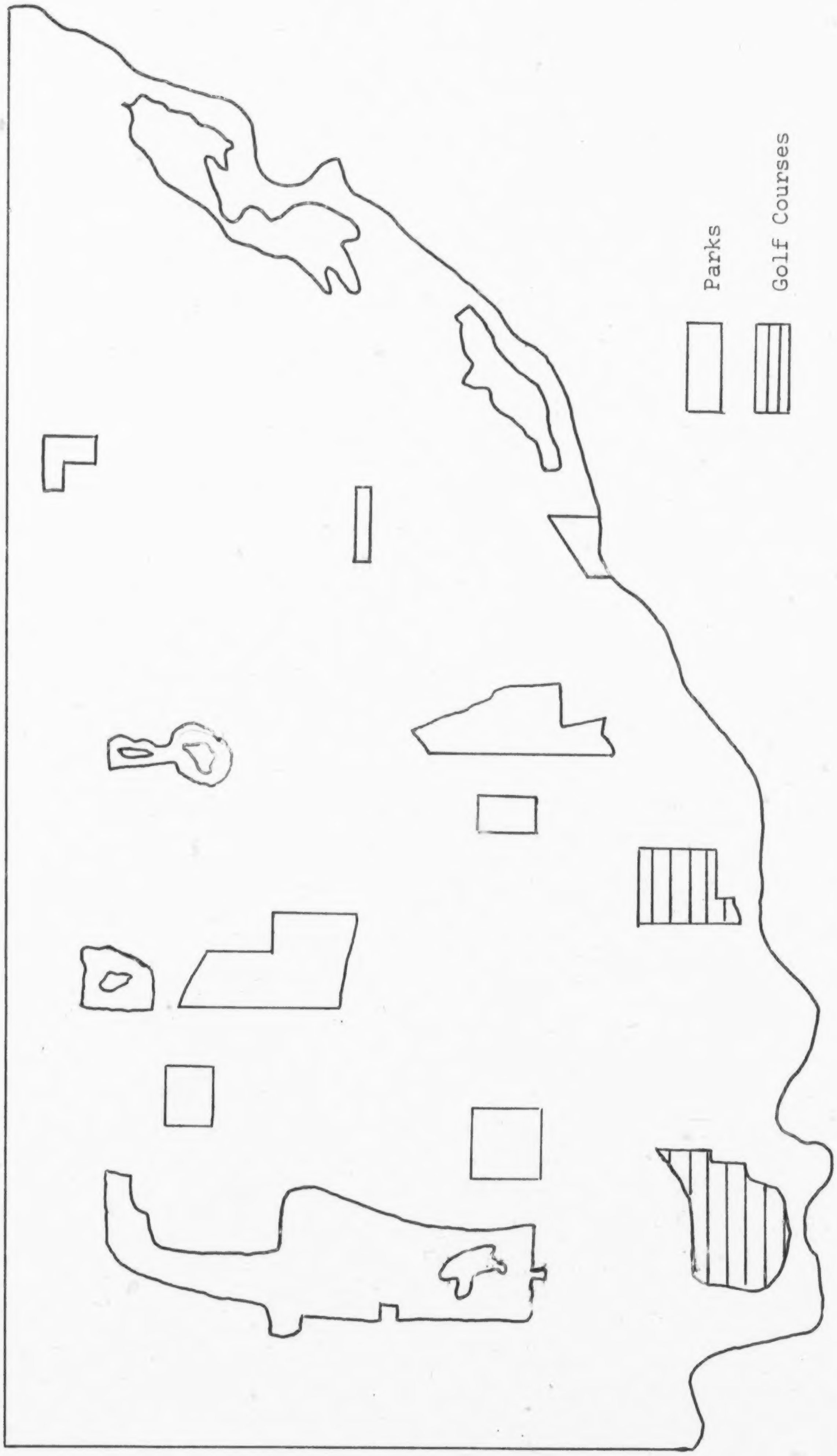
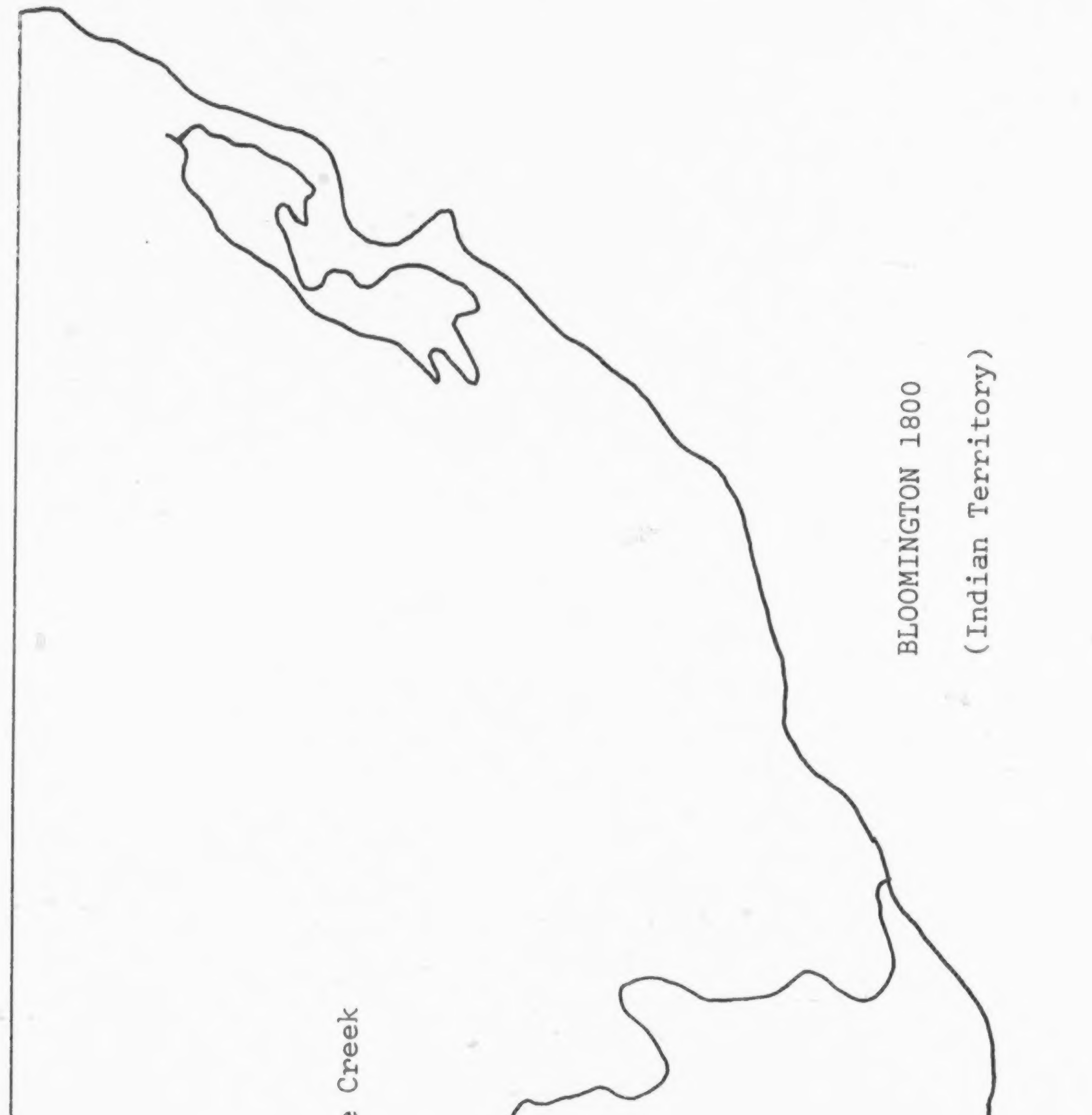
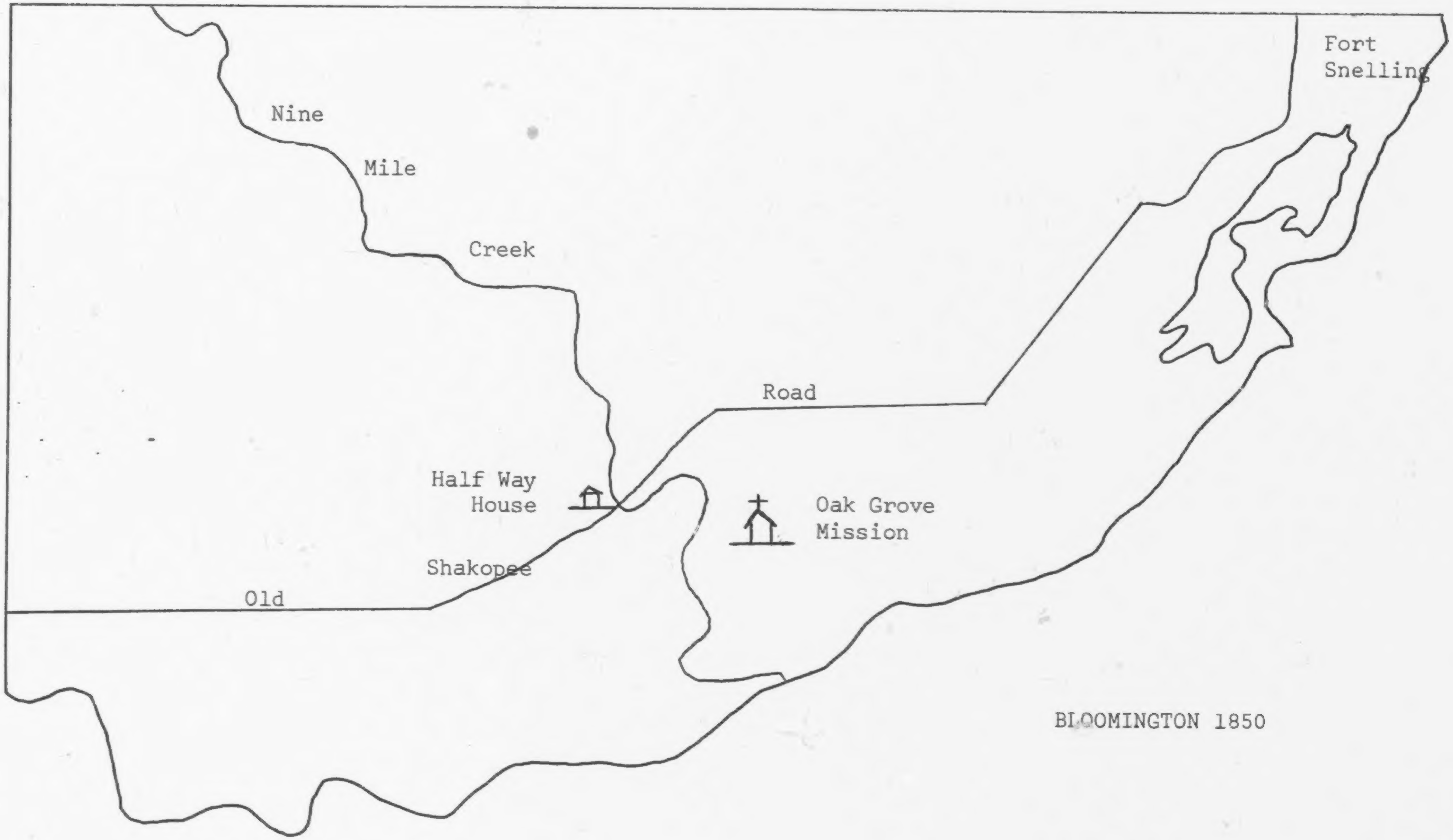

▨ COMMERCIAL


INDUSTRIAL

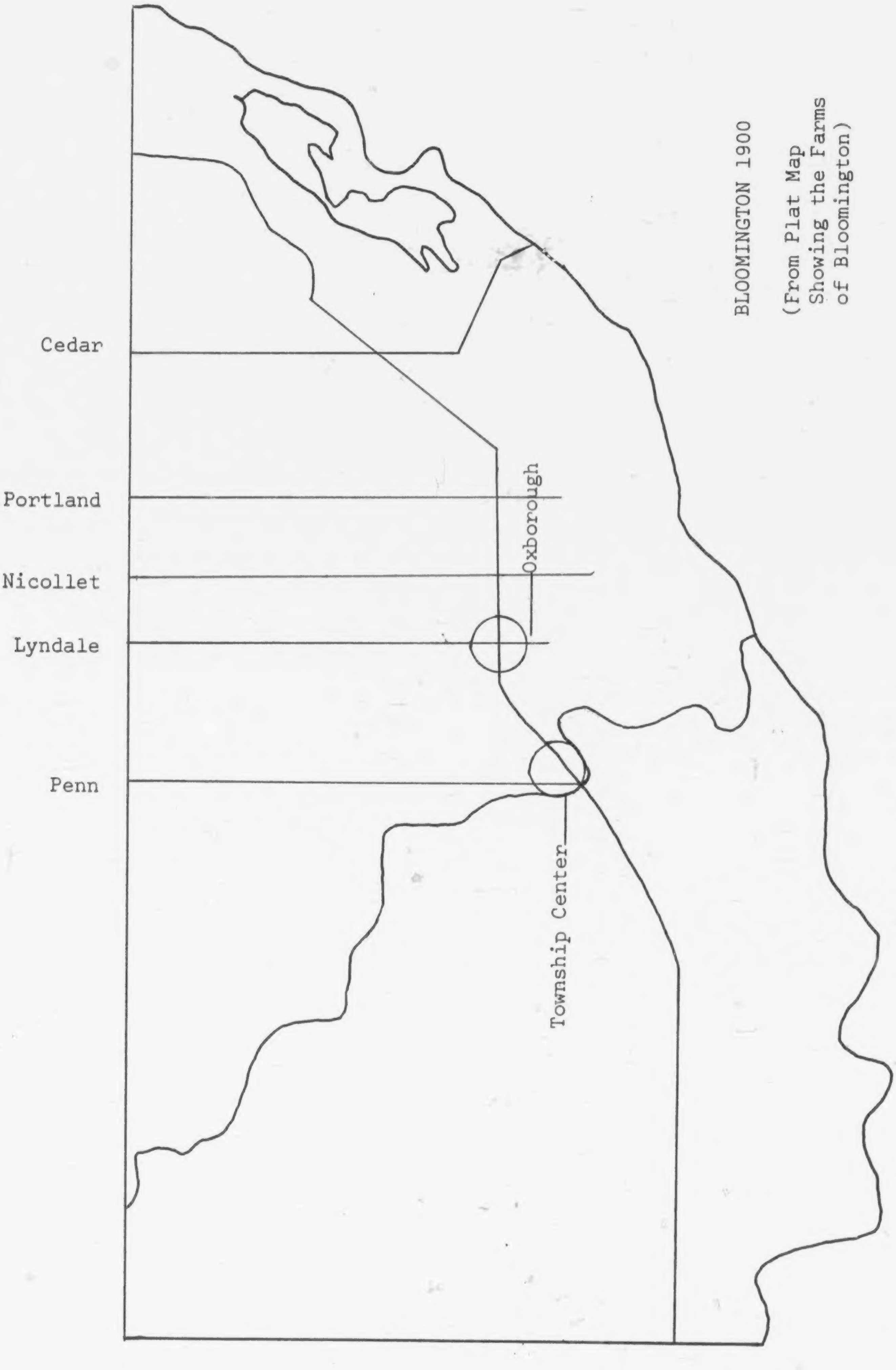

■ Elementary Schools
▥ Junior High Schools
▤ Senior High Schools


Parks
Golf Courses


BLOOMINGTON 1800
(Indian Territory)
Nine Mile Creek

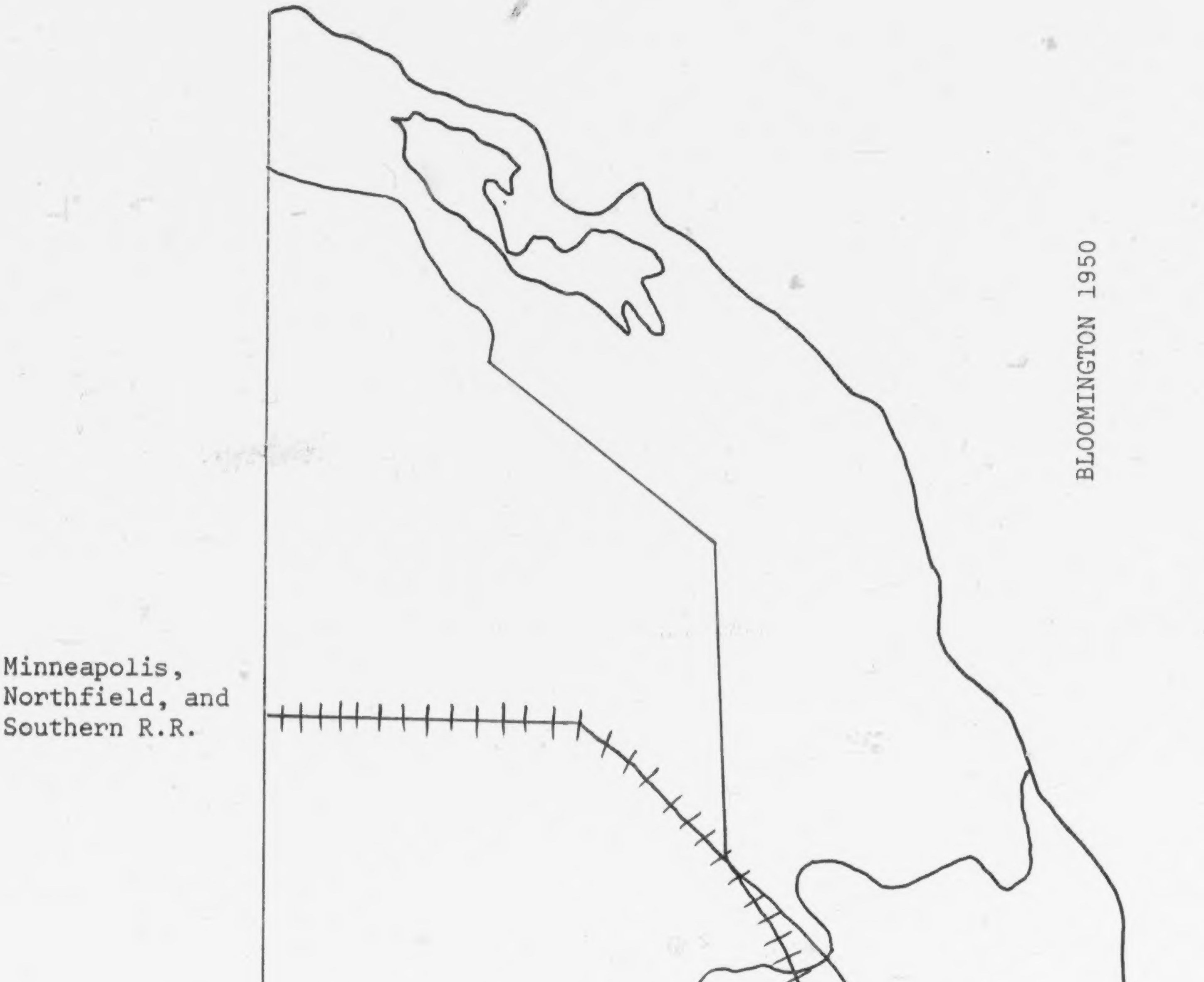

Fort
Snelling
Nine
Mile
Creek
Road
Half Way
House
Oak Grove
Mission
Shakopee
Old

BLOOMINGTON 1850


Cedar
Portland
Nicollet
Lyndale
Penn
Oxborough
Township Center

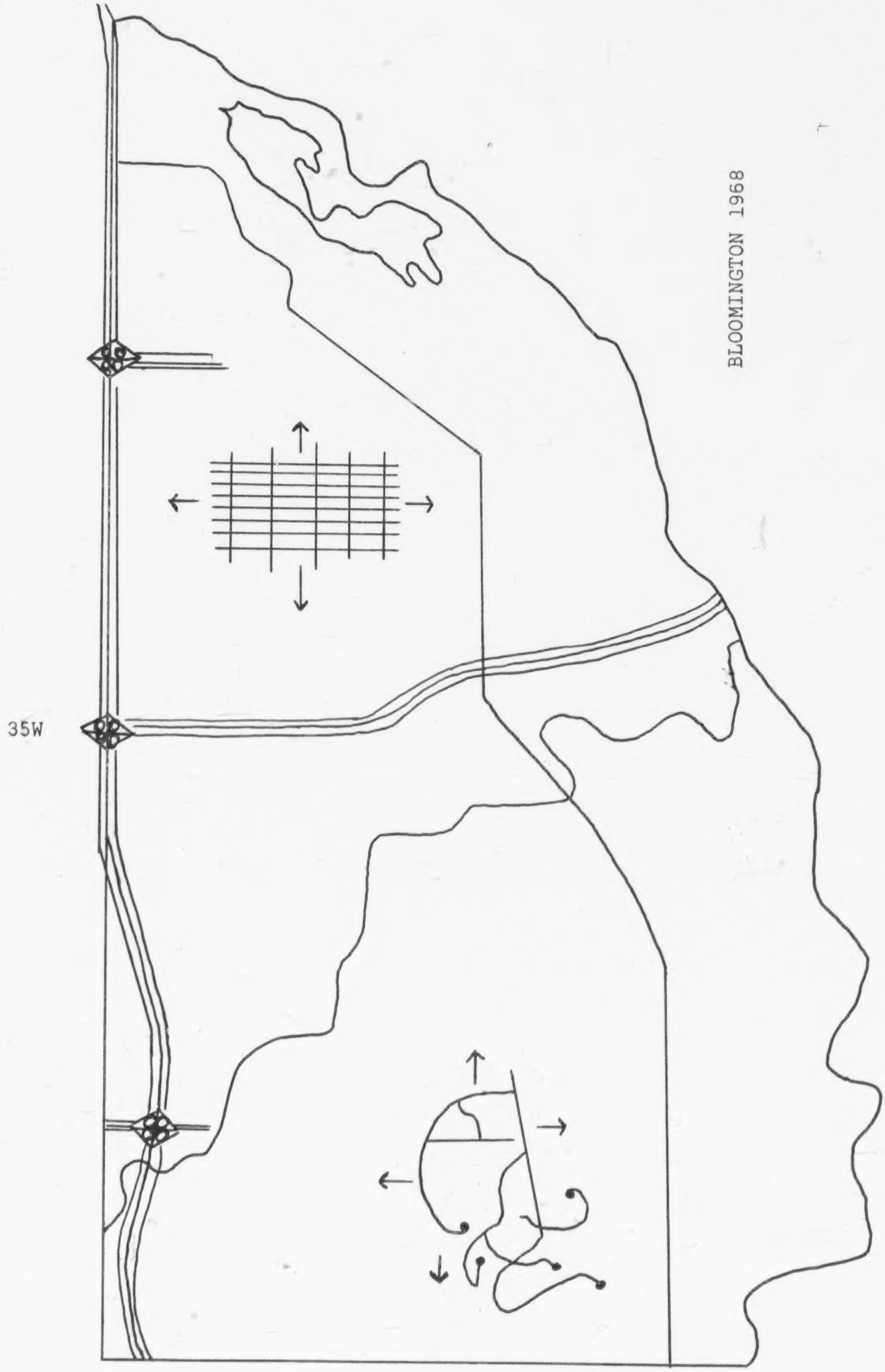
BLOOMINGTON 1900

(From Plat Map
Showing the Farms
of Bloomington)

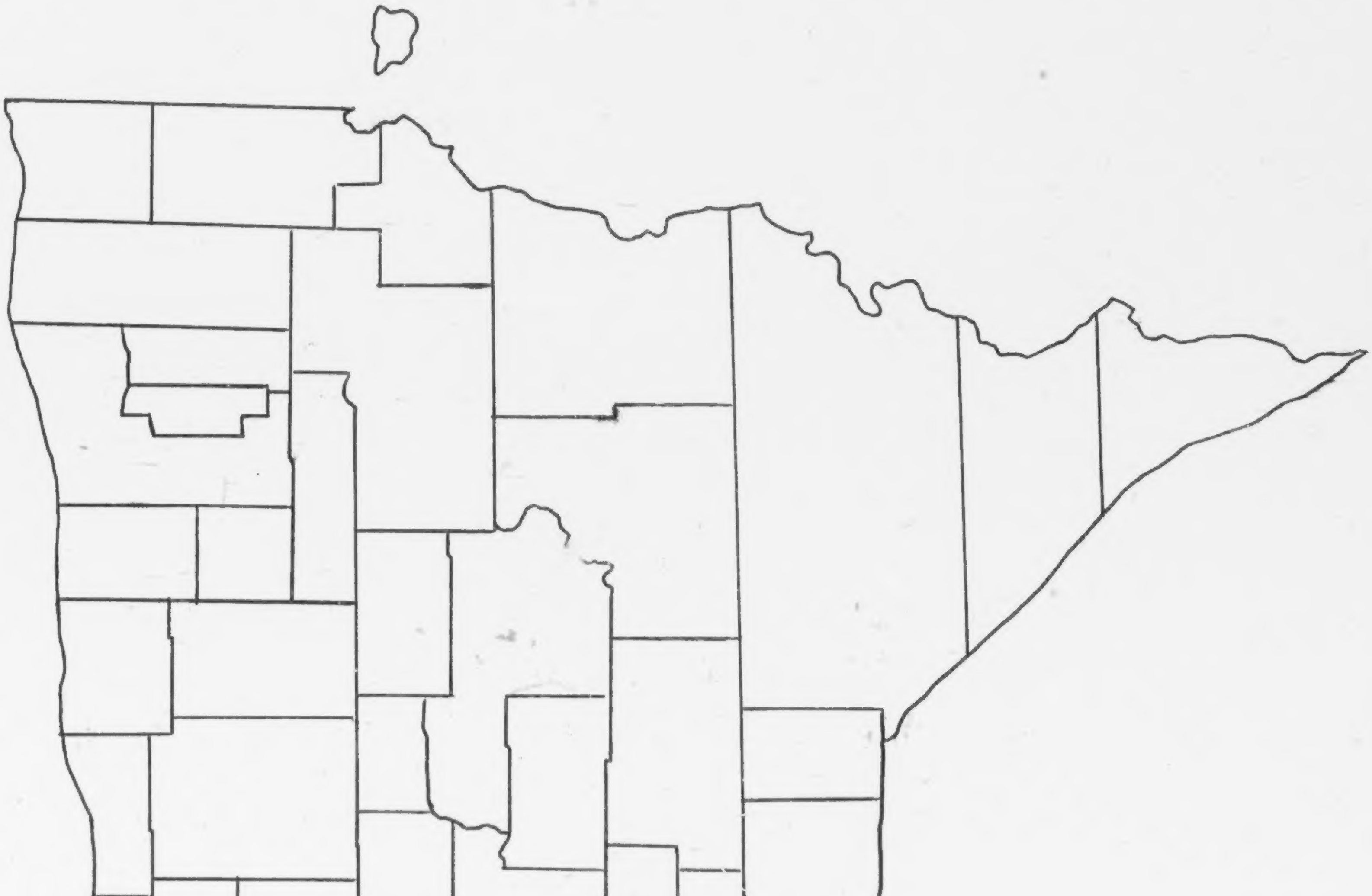


BLOOMINGTON 1950

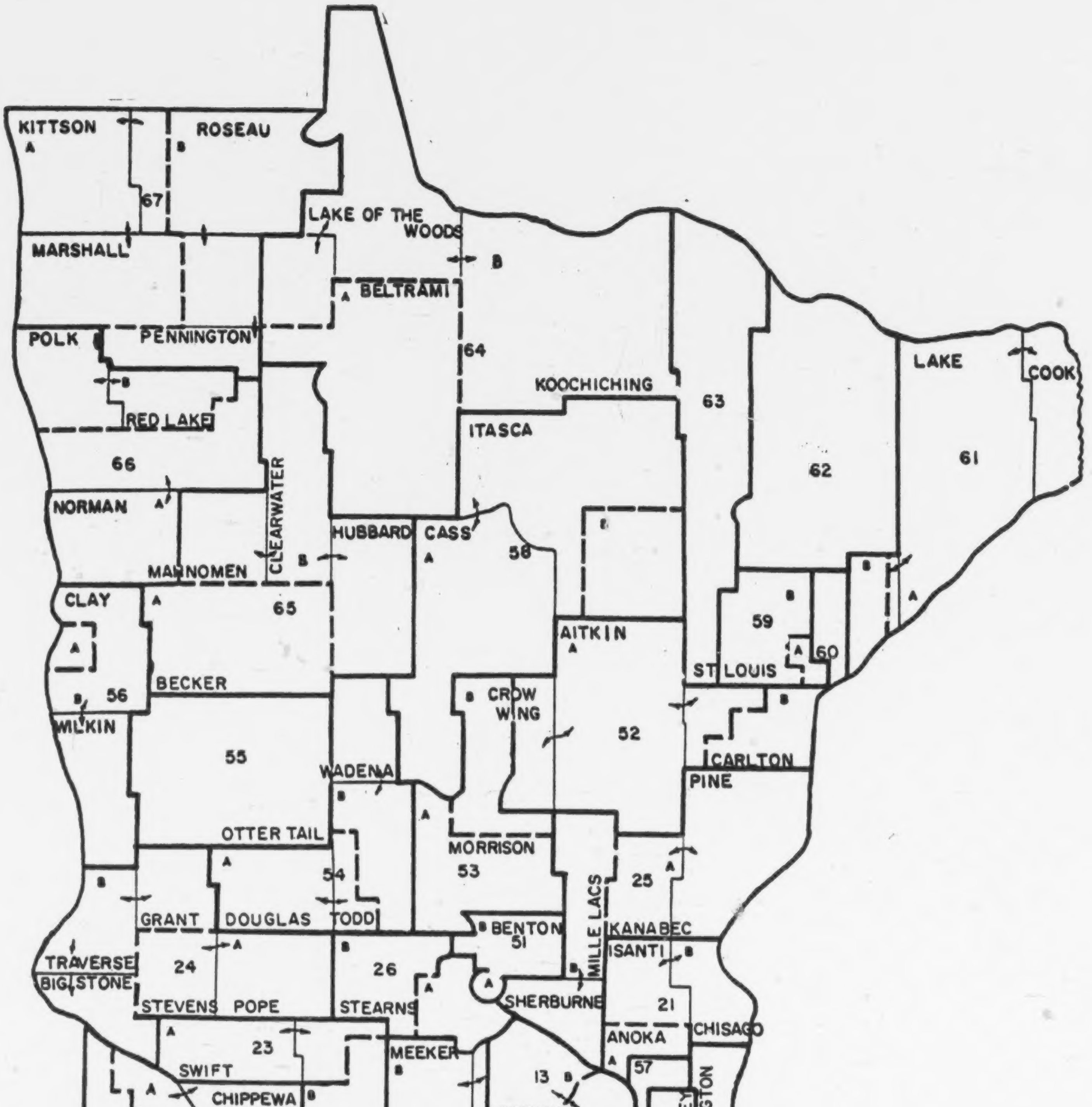
Minneapolis, Northfield, and Southern R.R.
Auto Club Road
Normandale Road
Bush Lake Road
County Road 18



BLOOMINGTON 1968


0
20
40
60
Scale of miles

OUTLINE MAP OF MINNESOTA


KITTSON
ROSEAU
67
LAKE OF THE WOODS
MARSHALL
BELTRAMI
POLK
PENNINGTON
RED LAKE
64
KOOCHICHING
63
LAKE
COOK
66
ITASCA
62
61
NORMAN
CLEARWATER
HUBBARD
CASS
58
MAHNOMEN
CLAY
65
AITKIN
59
60
ST LOUIS
BECKER
56
WILKIN
CROW WING
52
55
CARLTON
WADENA
PINE
OTTER TAIL
MORRISON
53
54
25
GRANT
DOUGLAS
TODD
BENTON
51
MILLE LACS
KANABEC
TRAVERSE
BIG STONE
24
26
ISANTI
21
STEVENS
POPE
STEARNS
SHERBURNE
23
MEEKER
ANOKA
CHISAGO
SWIFT
13
57
CHIPPEWA
22
WRIGHT
RAMSEY
WASHINGTON
KANDIYOHI
HENNEPIN
8
LAC QUI PARLE
12
16
McLEOD
14
CARVER
YELLOW MEDICINE
RENVILLE
15
SCOTT
DAKOTA
SIBLEY
20
NICOLLET
7
6
17
LINCOLN
LYON
REDWOOD
LESUEUR
RICE
GOODHUE
WABASHA
MURRAY
BROWN
WASECA
2
WATONWAN
4
11
3
PIPESTONE
COTTONWOOD
BLUE EARTH
STEELE
DODGE
OLMSTED
WINONA
19
18
10
9
5
1
ROCK
NOBLES
JACKSON
MARTIN
FARIBAULT
FREEBORN
MOWER
FILLMORE
HOUSTON

© Minnesota Railroads Association, 207 Union Depot Building, St. Paul, Minnesota

BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR UNIT I

Donaldson, Scott, The Making of a Suburb--An Intellectual History of Bloomington, Minnesota.

Economic Study--Bloomington, Minnesota. A report to the planning commission.

Kyllo, Howard, Bloomington. A historical study of Bloomington.

Peripheral Relationships. A study of the relationship between Bloomington's comprehensive planning and the plans and needs of other municipalities and public agencies in the metropolitan area.

The Pond Brothers. A historical narrative of Bloomington.

Pond, Mrs. Francis, Bloomington--A History of Minneapolis and Hennepin County. Edited by Atwater and Stevens.

We will also use statistical data from the Minnesota Twins organization concerning Twin's season ticket sales in the state of Minnesota.

UNIT II

THE GROWTH OF CITIES

UNIT II - THE GROWTH OF CITIES

(Unit from the high school geography project)

OBJECTIVES

The educational objectives of this unit are twofold:

1. The study of urban geography will help the student understand the nature of the man-made phenomena in which most of them will live and work.

2. The skills of analysis and synthesis will be developed.

OUTLINE OF CONTENT

This unit is broken into seven parts, two of which are optional to the unit. The seven parts are as follows:

1. Site selection
   Deals with the selecting of settlement sites at different periods in history.

2. A few American cities
   Applies ideas from first part to some specific examples of American cities.

3. Local community site considerations (Optional)
   Application of concepts to the Bloomington area.

4. Bruges
   The fortunes of a medieval city.
   Application of concepts to a city in the past.
   Deals with the decline of a city as well as growth.

5. The story of Portsville
   Provides students with information about the founding and growth of a city and they are asked to make decisions about this city which comply with the narrative.

6. Time - Distance
   Aimed at helping the student develop his facility of dealing with geometric abstractions.

7. Models of city form
   Students work with geometric graphic models of city form and compare them to maps of actual distributions; i.e., Chicago. Concepts of centrality, accessibility, residential segregation and relationships between various elements of the landscape are stressed.

AVAILABILITY OF MATERIALS

The materials for this unit may be purchased from the High School Geography Project, Boulder, Colorado. The materials include student resources, a teacher's guide, maps, and diagrams that are needed to teach the unit. The cost of one classroom set of this unit (30 student resources and one teacher's guide) is $288.00.

READINGS

ZONING - Economic Study - Bloomington, Minnesota, pp 8-10
(High, average and lows)

RESIDENTIAL DEVELOPMENT - Economic Study - Bloomington, Minnesota
pp 16-20 (Average and above)
pp 16-end (Low end)

DISTRIBUTION OF INDUSTRY - Peripheral Relationships, p 26 Study Map (Lows)
pp 26-28 (Average and above)

SPATIAL INTERACTION

PROJECT INDEPENDENT STUDY

Speaker - Use of video tape

1. Speaker from a plant or industry in Bloomington that produces goods used in other parts of the world.
2. Students on Independent Study will view the tape.
3. "Bloomington has direct relations with many parts of the world." Do you agree or disagree with this statement? In a paper of no less than 500 words defend your position on this question. Be sure to include facts to back up your position.

   Possible sources of information:
   a. Rosemont Engineering
   b. Thermo King
   c. Honeywell
   d. Control Data
   e. Univac
   f. Sperry Rand

GROWTH OF CITIES

LARGE GROUP (Site - situation)

As a follow-up to an exercise dealing with the hierarchy of cities (central place theory), a speaker who is a specialist from a large oil company, supermarket chain, or other chain organization could speak about criteria used to choose sites for new branches.

The speaker would introduce the students to such things as traffic counts, maps used as home office aids in making the decisions, population graphs plotting anticipated increases and decreases in growth, maps of present and anticipated highway construction, etc.

(Broek, Jan O.M., Geography, Its Scope and Spirit, Charles E. Merrill Social Science Seminar, 1966.)

TEACHING PROCEDURES
(Description of Activities HSGP)

Activity 1 - Site Selection

This activity, considered essential to the unit, is planned to take one day of class time. Diagrams are provided in the tablet. A reading, "Site Selection in 1968," is included in the Student Resources beginning on page 1.

Students study maps of hypothetical areas and discuss the relative merits of different locations as city sites at different times in history. The discussion will bring out assumptions made about sites, criteria for advantageous sites, and the significance of changing technology upon the prosperity and growth of cities.

In addition to the more specific objectives which follow, this activity gives students practice in applying conventional wisdom to a new problem. They should derive some sense of the variety of interpretations which can be given to a simple hypothetical illustration. They should begin to realize that multiple solutions to a problem are often possible, and that alternative possible solutions will reflect different assumptions made by different individuals.

At the conclusion of the activity, the student should be better able to:

1. Describe some of the factors influencing the location of urban sites.

2. Recognize the influence of chance factors and incomplete information on site-location decisions.

3. Describe how the factors influencing the site selection change in relative importance over time.

The following are examples of student behaviors that indicate attainment of the above objectives:

- Given a map with several locations noted and asked to explain the relative advantages of each location, the student discusses them from the perspective of the transportation available at the time, the terrain and resources of the area, and the cultural background of the settlers. In justifying a particular location decision the student mentions the possibility that chance or incomplete knowledge may be decisive in the exact location of the settlement.
- Given maps that picture the same area in two different periods of time and asked to discuss the relative merits of several site locations in each period, the student discusses the advantages of each location in terms of health, safety, access to resources and transportation. In his discussion the student mentions that the passage of time alters the relative importance of these factors.

Activity 2 - A Few American Cities

This integral activity is concerned with the site characteristics and location of some American cities, and how these and other factors have contributed to their growth. It thus continues the emphasis on site noted in the first activity and begins a consideration of locational and other factors involved in urban growth that will be emphasized in the Bruges and Portsville stories. This activity should be manageable in two class periods, especially if some of the reading is assigned as homework.

There are two parts to the activity. The first part is a reading comparing the site characteristics and growth of Boston, New York and Philadelphia. Before the students are assigned the reading they are to be given an outline map of the North Atlantic seaboard area and asked to indicate the sites where they think large cities would be likely to grow. Class discussion is expected to occur both after the initial map work and again at the conclusion of the reading. In the second part of the activity students are asked to predict where major American cities would develop in the nineteenth century. Reading, map analysis, and class discussion are involved.

The readings are found on pages 3 to 11 and 11 to 14 in the Student Resources. Two maps of the North Atlantic seaboard section of the United States, the first without cities, the second showing the location of Boston, New York and Philadelphia, are provided on separate tablets for distribution to students during the first part of this activity. Copies of a drainage map of the Middle West, as well as 1840 and 1890 maps showing the location and relative size of Middle Western cities, are provided on tablets for the second part of the activity.

In addition to the more specific objectives listed below, students should improve their ability to derive information from a reading. They should also develop skill in modifying generalizations when these are applied to new situations.

At the conclusion of the activity, the student should be better able to:

1. Explain the location of urban places.
2. Predict the growth potential for settlements.

3. Recognize that predictions of growth potential can be made only in terms of probability because of chance and changes brought about by time.

The following are examples of student behaviors that indicate attainment of the above objectives:

- Given a map and history of the Lower Mississippi Valley and asked why New Orleans developed where it did, the student mentions the Mississippi River system, proximity to the ocean, the migration routes of settlers from the Atlantic Coast to Texas, and the trade potential of the area.
- Given a large scale map of the Gulf Coast and asked to evaluate the relative growth potential of New Orleans, Mobile, and Galveston, the student discusses the position of each city in regard to access to resources, transportation routes, and other variables.
- In responding to the above problem, the student indicates that he is not able to answer with greater certainty because:

  Factors contributing to growth at one time in history may be less influential at another time.
  Chance factors are usually involved.

Activity 3 - Local Community Site Considerations

The importance of site in the development of various settlements has been the theme of the first activities of this unit. Activity 3 is suggested as an optional activity lasting two or three days in which the insights gained in the earlier part of the unit are transferred to the local setting. There are two main parts to the activity, the first part dealing with the original uses of the local site, and the second part featuring the current uses of the site.

Students are asked to prepare maps of the local area. Teachers who are familiar with both the local history and the general patterns of current land use of their community will have little difficulty effecting the suggestions in the teacher's Guide. This activity is related to a suggestion in Activity 5 for using the Portsville map model with a map of the local area to show land-use patterns.

No materials are provided in the Student Resources. The activity depends on the availability of maps of the local area. Large scale maps are generally available from local chambers of commerce or planning commissions. City maps found in road atlases are often at a scale of one inch to four miles which is a useful map scale for this activity. Topographic maps may be purchased from the United States Geological Survey, Washington, D.C., 20242. The U.S.G.S. has a special map series for major cities called the Metropolitan Area Map Series that costs as much as two dollars a sheet. Indices are free upon request.

Colored pencils will be helpful to students working with base maps. The base maps may be prepared by tracing an available map on a ditto master and making copies for the students. The major physical features, transportation arteries, and landmarks should be shown.

Information on local history is needed to teach this activity. Possible sources are the local library and historical society. Most school systems have accumulated such information for use by teachers in the early elementary grades. It may be possible to utilize a knowledgeable person from the community to answer questions about the site of the original settlement and developments relevant to city growth.

Educational Objectives

In addition to the more specific objectives which follow, this activity should allow the student to relate his personal experience and observation to geography. By the application of generalizations to the city he knows, this activity should help the student begin to see that some sort of orderly management of things does indeed exist in a city. The ability to put into map form information gathered in the field may be an outcome of this activity. Overall, the sense of realism, the feeling that geography does relate to things he can corroborate at first hand are important, if vague, objectives.

At the conclusion of the activity, the student should be better able to:

1. Discuss the factors affecting the selection of the site of his own community.

2. Locate and give reasons for the location of major land uses within the community.

The following are examples of student behavior that indicate attainment of the above objectives:

- If asked to explain the reasons for the original location of his community, the student describes the advantages that the site seemed to offer in terms of such factors as comfort, access to resources, and transportation routes.

- Furnished with a land-use map of his community and asked to locate and explain the major types of land use areas, the student identifies areas of manufacturing, commercial use, and residential use, and explains their location in terms of such factors as transportation facilities and terrain.

Activity 5 - The Story of Portsville

The initial activities of this unit have stressed both the influence of site features on decisions of where to locate settlements, and some of the factors that are involved in city growth. In this activity students are provided with information about the founding of a community and about its growth. Students are asked to make decisions that comply with the information in the narrative about how the various industries, commercial enterprises, housing, and other land uses might have been arranged at three different time periods. Students simulate the arrangement on a plastic Modulex map. Although student readings and questions are provided, and discussion guides are given for the teacher, most of the class time will be occupied by the building of Portsville. This activity is considered essential to the unit and should take six or seven days.

The activity consists of the following five parts:

Part One, selecting the site of Portsville, consists of a reading followed be a discussion. Approximately one class period is required.

Part Two, Portsville from 1850 to 1880, consists of a reading followed by a review discussion. Students then work in four groups to construct the city as they visualize it might have been in 1880, using information provided in the reading. This part concludes with a discussion of the different decisions made by the students and the rationale for their decisions. Approximately two class periods should be needed.

Part Three, Portsville from 1880 to 1890, follows the same pattern as part two with a reading, a review of the reading, construction of the city in 1890, and a discussion of the student decisions that were involved. Approximately one and one half days should be required.

Part Four, Portsville from 1890 to 1900, repeats the pattern established for the two previous parts and should take approximately one and one-half days.

Part Five, a discussion of a map of Seattle, is centered on the growth of Seattle from 1900 to the present. This part is not essential to the activity and is included to satisfy curiosity about what happened to Portsville after 1900. Approximately one class period should be needed.

The following materials will be used in teaching this activity:

1. Student reading for parts one through four is found in the Student Resources, pages 29 through 47.
2. The first four parts of the activity require the use of a plastic Modulex map of Portsville. Each map is accompanied by an envelope containing building materials. An inventory of the materials and a direction sheet are also enclosed in each envelope.
3. Each group of students working on a Modulex map model will need a pair of scissors during parts two, three, and four of the activity. These scissors are not furnished with the unit.
4. Part five of the activity requires a United States Geological Survey "Map of Seattle and Vicinity" and a USGS pamphlet entitled "Topographic Maps." These materials are not provided with the unit. Directions for obtaining them may be found at the end of the "Guidelines" for the activity.

Educational Objectives

In addition to the specific objectives listed below, the student completing this activity should be better able to transfer data about city growth from verbal to graphic form. The tactile experience of building a tangible model of the city should result in a subtle change in student outlook. Instead of being overwhelmed by the city's size and complexity, he should be able to stand off and see the city as a whole, as an assemblage of component parts.

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Predict where different kinds of urban land use are likely to be located.

2. Explain why different kinds of urban land use may be located where they are.

3. Explain why a city grows or declines.

4. Cite examples of how such factors as human ingenuity, enterprise, and good fortune influence urban growth.

5. Cite examples showing how people have modified their physical environment and adapted to it.

The following are examples of student behaviors that indicate attainment of the above objectives:

- Given a detailed map of an urban area and asked to predict the most probable locations for different types of land use, the student locates heavy industry along water and rail routes, shopping and recreational centers adjacent to residential areas, and high cost, single family dwellings on the outskirts of the city.

- Asked to explain why heavy industry is located near water or rail transportation, he refers to the need of such industry to be accessible to both raw materials and markets.

- Told that a city of 500,000 now prospers where a small settlement once existed and asked what sorts of information he would need to account for this growth, he mentions information about the transportation connections with other areas, the goods and services produced by the city, the pattern of population growth in the overall area, and the availability of natural resources.

- Given a reading on the history of Los Angeles and asked to list instances where human ingenuity or good fortune influenced the growth of the city, the student notes such things as the discovery of gold in the Southern Sierras and the discovery of oil in Riverside and Kern Counties.

- Given a large scale map of New Orleans and asked to cite specific examples where the people have either modified their physical environment or adapted to it, the student points out such examples as:

    1. The dikes along the Mississippi River that keep the river in a channel.

    2. The many pumping stations that keep the areas of the city that are below sea level dry.

    3. The man-made canals that facilitate the transport of goods between the Mississippi River and Lake Pontchartrain.

Activity 6 - Time-Distance

In this activity students work with abstract and hypothetical illustrations of centrality and accessibility. These ideas help to explain some decisions taken for granted in earlier activities. They are used in most of the six activities that follow. This activity is considered integral to the unit.

It is expected that one or two class days will be needed depending upon how much class discussion of accessibility and of perceived distance you wish to encourage. Arithmetic calculations of time totals and preparation of answers to the questions on pages 72 and 73 could be assigned as homework. The student reading, maps, and questions are in the Student Resources on pages 49 to 52. Two tables for calculation of time-distance are printed separately on tablets.

Educational Objectives

In addition to the more specific objectives that follow, this activity helps students develop their facility with geometrical abstractions. This ability to work with abstractions is a basis for the model building skills called for in Activity 7. Further, students become more aware of the difference between their actual and their perceived worlds.

At the conclusion of the activity, the student should be better able to:

1. Discuss distance in terms of the time it takes to get from one point to another.
2. Calculate which of several locations is most accessible in terms of time-distance.
3. Describe how ease of access is altered by innovation in transportation technology.
4. Predict some of the ways changes in accessibility will alter patterns of city growth.

The following are examples of student behavior that indicate attainment of the above objectives:

- When asked about the shortest distance between two points the student considers time as well as physical distance.
- Given a 1950 road map of Colorado with the five largest cities designated and asked to find which of the five is most accessible to the citizens of all of these cities, the student calculates his answer using population and travel-time data.
- Given a 1968 road map of Colorado and asked how the new interstate highways will change the relative accessibility of these same cities, the student recalculates the accessibility, again using city population and travel-time data.
- Asked to predict how the construction of a freeway through his city will affect the city's growth, the student indicates that he expects the city to expand more rapidly along these new arteries than in other directions.

Activity 7 - Models of City Form

In this activity, students work with geometrical graphic models of city form, comparing them to maps of actual distributions in Chicago. Students explain anomalies.

Ideas of centrality, accessibility, residential segregation, and relationships between various elements of the landscape are illustrated. It is considered an integral activity in the unit; in fact, it is toward the concepts and skills of this activity that much of the previous work has been directed. Activities in later units dealing with the spacing of cities and manufacturing depend on the introduction to models given here.

Teaching time is estimated to be two to four days. All of the student materials are contained in the Student Resources, page 53 to 66. Three transparencies and a sheet of acetate are provided for use in the last part of the activity. An overhead projector will be needed at that time.

Educational Objectives

In addition to the more specific objectives listed below, students should continue to develop their abstract reasoning skills. Moreover, with the introduction of abstract models in this activity, students should gain facility in building and using a new type of conceptual tool.

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Explain the purpose and limitations of using a model to describe real conditions.

2. Generalize how a number of urban variables are related to one another from mapped data about these materials.

The following are examples of student behaviors that indicate attainment of the above objectives:

- Asked to explain how a model is a useful tool, the student mentions that a model is helpful in identifying the patterns of regularities that exist in the real world. Asked if there are any problems that a person should be aware of in using a model, the student indicates that no single model can duplicate reality exactly. There will always be some things that are unexplained by the model.

- Given mapped data on such variables as median family income, median school years completed, and persons per residential acre, and asked to show if they are related and how, the student describes a generally positive relationship between the first two and a generally negative relationship between them and the third variable.

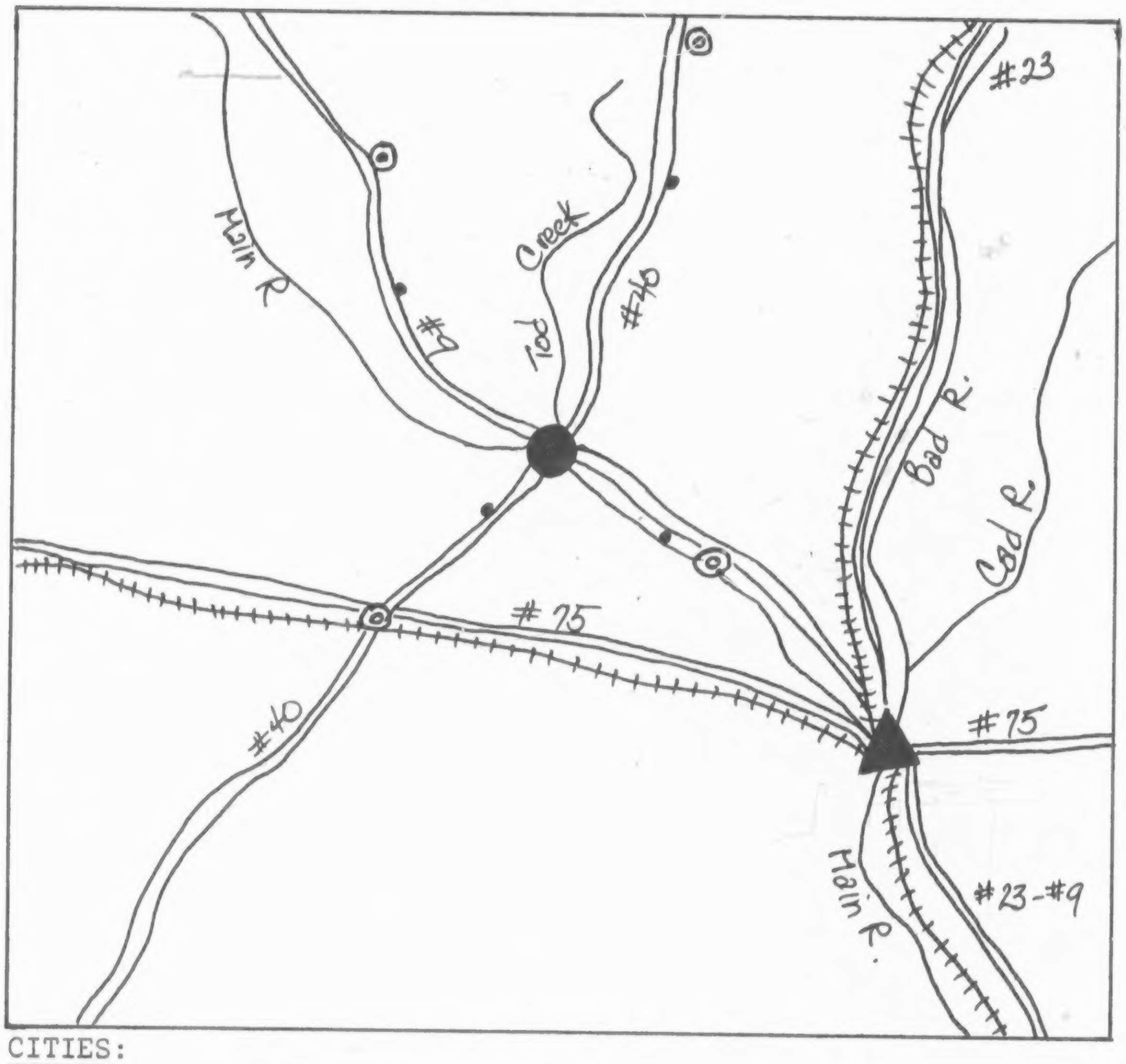
- Given the mapped data of persons per residential acre, age distribution, and median family income of the nearest large city and asked whether the concentric ring or sector models best fit the data, the student makes a judgment and indicates where the data correspond to each model and depart from it.

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS FOR UNIT II

1. The Location of Cities (For small group or independent study)
2. Overlay #1 - Central Place Theory
3. Overlay #2 - Central Place Theory

THE LOCATION OF CITIES

Central Place
Theory



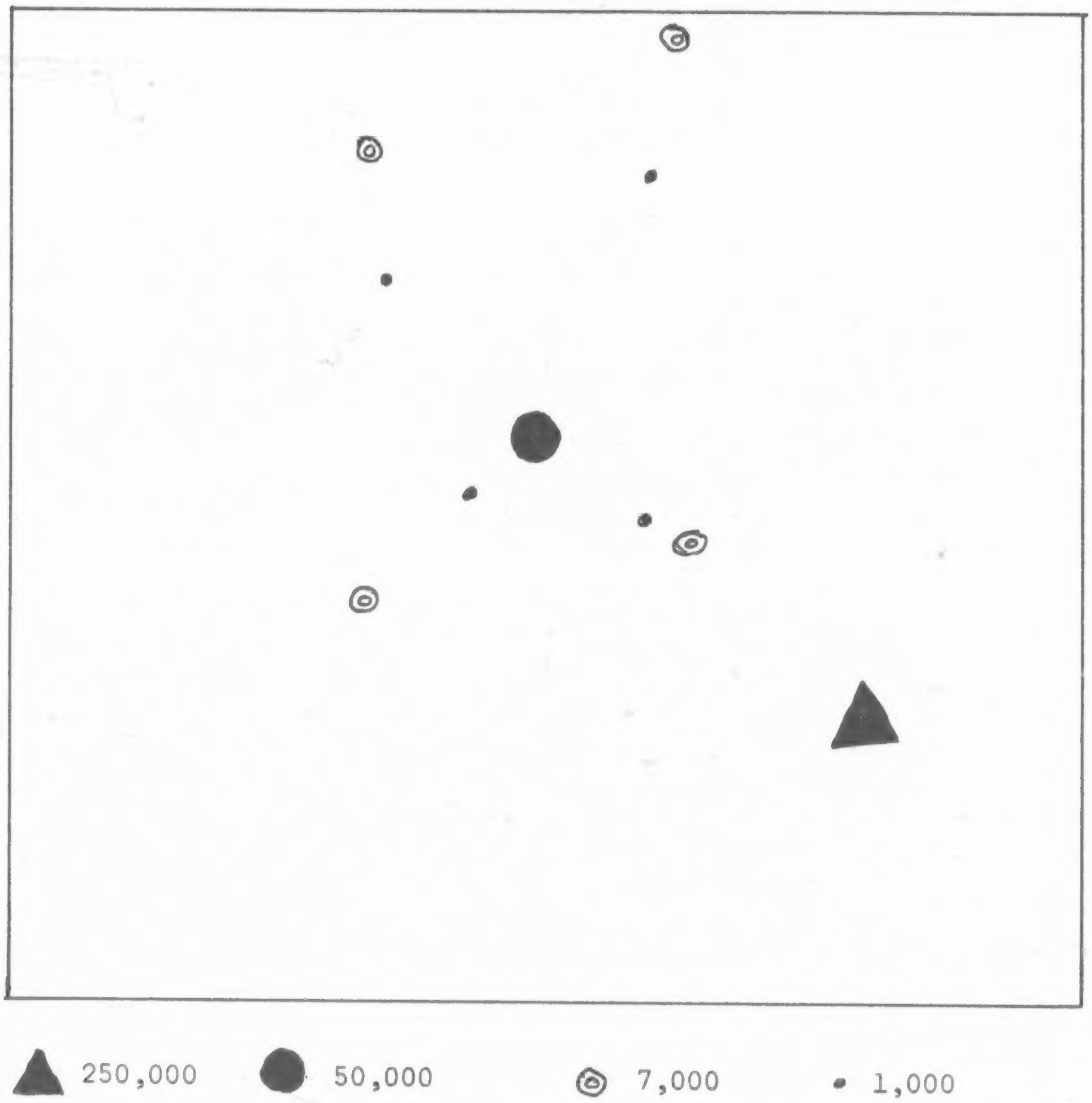
CITIES:

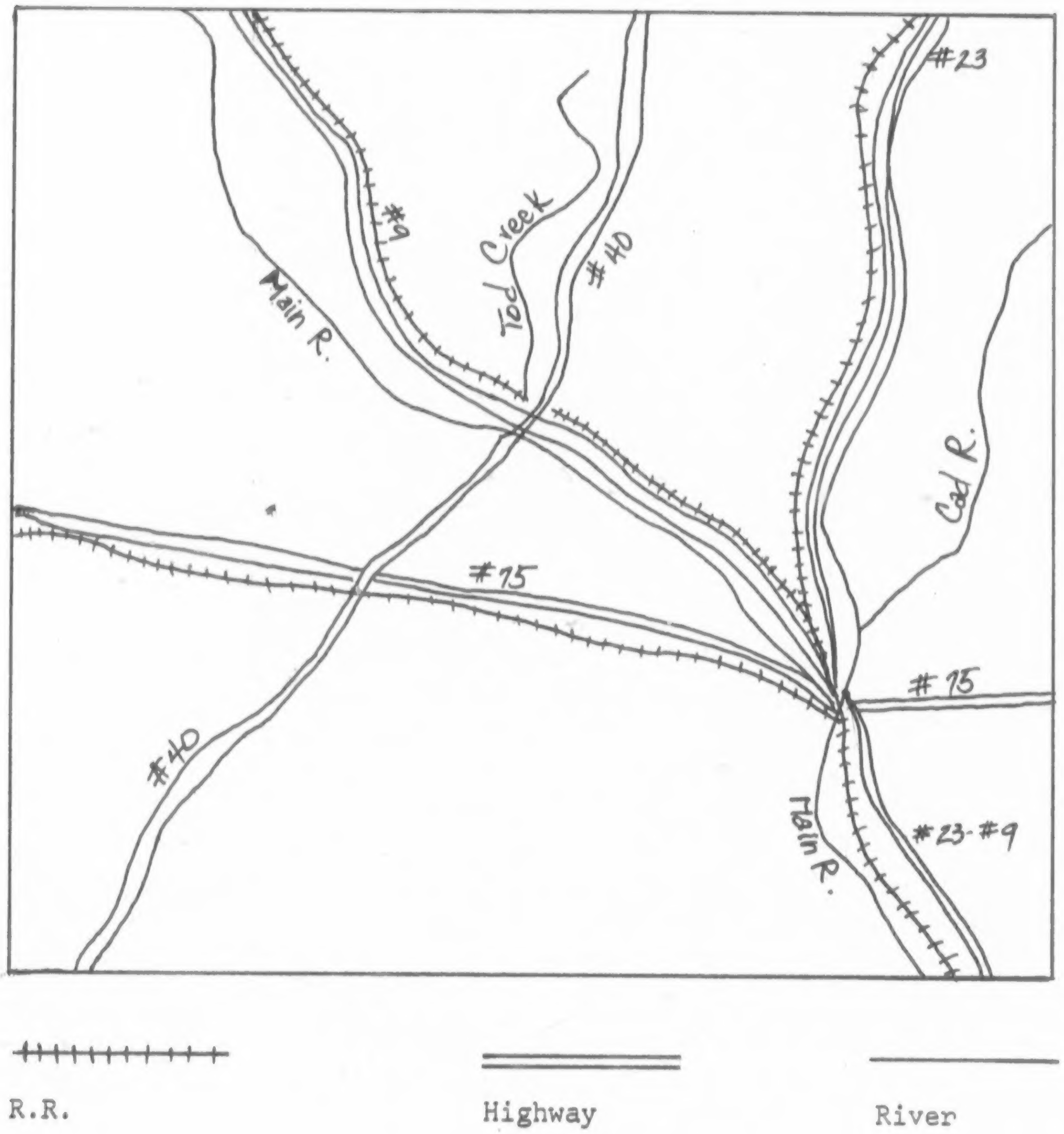
▲ 250,000 ● 50,000 ◎ 7,000 • 1,000

+++++++++++ R.R. ═════ Highway

Why are some cities larger than others on the above map? Do all the cities render the same services to individuals? If not, differentiate the types of services provided by each site for the surrounding area. Is the area served by each city of equal or near equal proportions? Is the area served by cities of equal size of equal or near-equal proportions?

What generalization(s) about the location of cities can you make after doing this exercise?


▲ 250,000
● 50,000
◎ 7,000
• 1,000


#9
Tod Creek
#40
Main R.
#23
Cad R.
#15
#15
#40
Main R.
#23-#9
R.R.
Highway
River

UNIT III

IN WHAT WAYS DOES MAN'S PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT AFFECT HIS SETTLEMENT PATTERNS AND TO WHAT DEGREE IS THIS TRUE?

UNIT III - IN WHAT WAYS DOES MAN'S PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT AFFECT HIS SETTLEMENT PATTERNS AND TO WHAT DEGREE IS THIS TRUE?

OBJECTIVES

Generalizations

1. Man's settlement patterns are to a degree determined by his physical environment.

2. Some physical environments are more conducive to human settlement than others.

3. The scale on which a geographer does his investigation greatly influences the conclusions he can make.

4. Man's situation is not "determined" by his environment but is a result of his cultural perception of his physical environment.

Skills and Abilities

1. The ability to relate information on the physical environment to the settlement patterns of man.

2. The ability to visualize and understand the physical environment of other people.

3. Given certain information about the physical environment, the student will be able to predict the environmental possibilities of that area for human habitat.

4. The ability to evaluate a generalization in terms of scale.

5. The ability to pose a plan to solve a problem.

6. The skill of interpreting maps into useful information.

7. The ability to make generalizations based on specific materials.

8. The ability to analyze social studies material for the purpose of distinguishing between fact and opinion.

Affective Objectives

1. Develop student awareness of the effect of the physical environment on man.

2. Develop preference for critical thinking.

3. Develop a willingness to respond to his own stimuli.

OUTLINE OF CONTENT

I. What are the physical factors that limit man's possibilities?

   A. Landforms
      1. Plains - defined in terms of elevation and slope.
      2. Plateaus - defined in terms of elevation, relation to other land forms and slope.
      3. Mountains - defined in terms of slope, summit areas and elevation.

   B. Climate - defined in terms of rainfall, temperature and wind systems and distribution.

   C. Soils - defined in terms of distribution, present and potential fertility.

   D. Vegetation - defined in terms of distribution and present and potential use to man.

II. What is man's relationship to his environment? (A comparison of environmental determinism to possibilism)

   A. Environmental determinism - man's situation is determined by his physical environment

   B. Possibilism - "One must start from the notion that a land is a reservoir containing dormant energies of which nature has planted the seed, but whose use depends on man." (Paul Vidal)

TEACHING PROCEDURES

I. What are the physical factors that limit man's possibilities?

   A. Large group
   Slides, description and definition of plains, plateaus, mountains, vegetation, soils and climate types. Care will be taken not to reveal man's relationship to these phenomena.

   Hand out I.S. project and explain directions as needed.

   B. Independent study project
   Each student will receive a climate, soil and topography outline map of the world. The problem would be to locate areas that are favorable to human settlement using their knowledge of climate, soil and topography. It is hoped that the student will use his map skills to develop some critical thinking and to discover where man lives.

   C. Small Group
   #1 Discussion
   Introduce map reading procedures for use on I.S. project. Discuss plains, plateaus, mountains, vegetation, soils and climate types. Use a map project to illustrate these phenomena. Care will be taken to

answer the question "What are the physical factors that make up man's environment?"

#2 Discussion

I.S. project is due in small group. Students will be asked to show on a map where most people live. A running list of factors favorable for settlement should be kept. Care will be taken to answer the question "What are the physical factors that limit man's possibilities?"

II. Man's situation is not "determined" by his physical environment but is a result of his cultural perception of that environment.

A. Large group

Topic - "You can explain everything with geography." This lecture will be concerned with proving the environmental determinist point of view. This will be done by relating skin color to latitude, disposition to work with climate factors and other examples. The purpose here is to give a radical viewpoint to stimulate a counter response on the students part to come forth with the desired viewpoint.

B. Independent study

Excerpts from Ellsworth Huntington (environmental determinist) and Paul Vidal (possibilism) will be assigned to each student in preparation for small group.

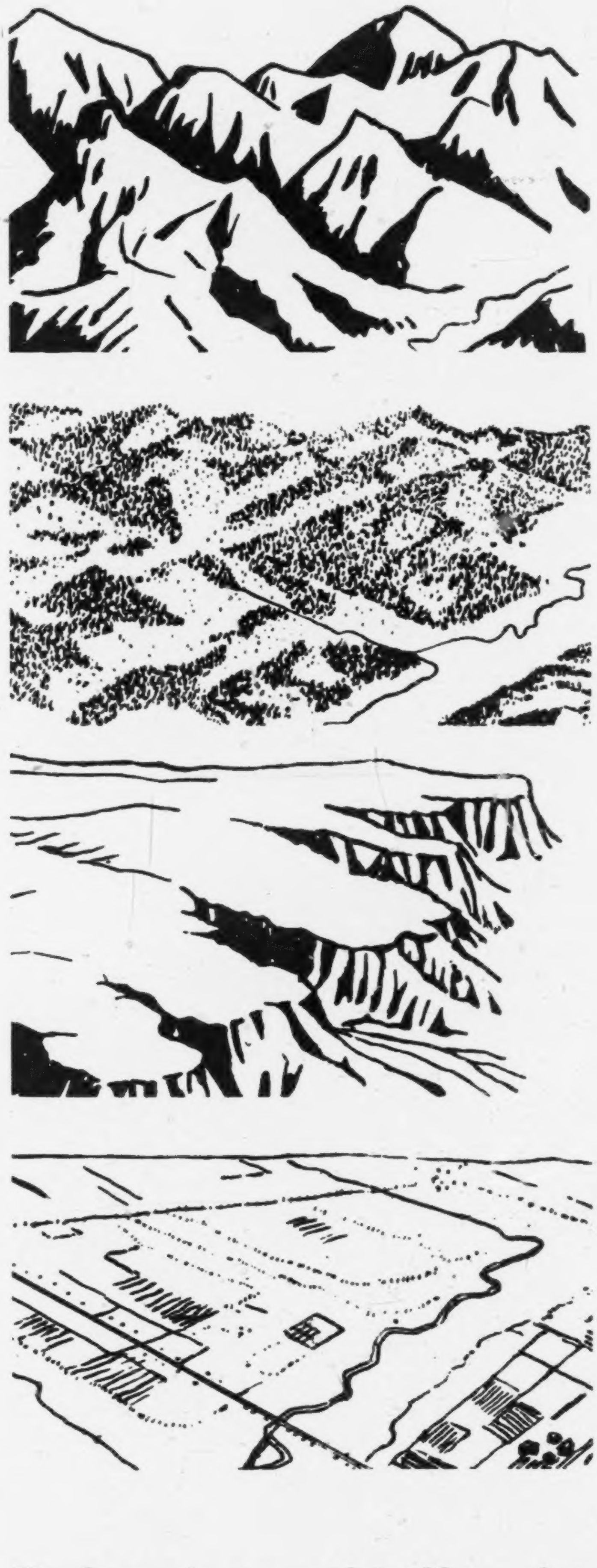
C. Small group

Students may want to discuss lecture and possibly cite some examples of determinism themselves. Here the teacher may bring up the idea of scale. Does it make any difference if we're talking about an individual or of a continent of people? What generalizations may apply to a large group that do not apply to an individual? Hopefully, the students will come with a generalization similar to the generalization at the heading of this part of the unit.

Question - "What is the relationship of man to his physical environment?"

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS - MAPS

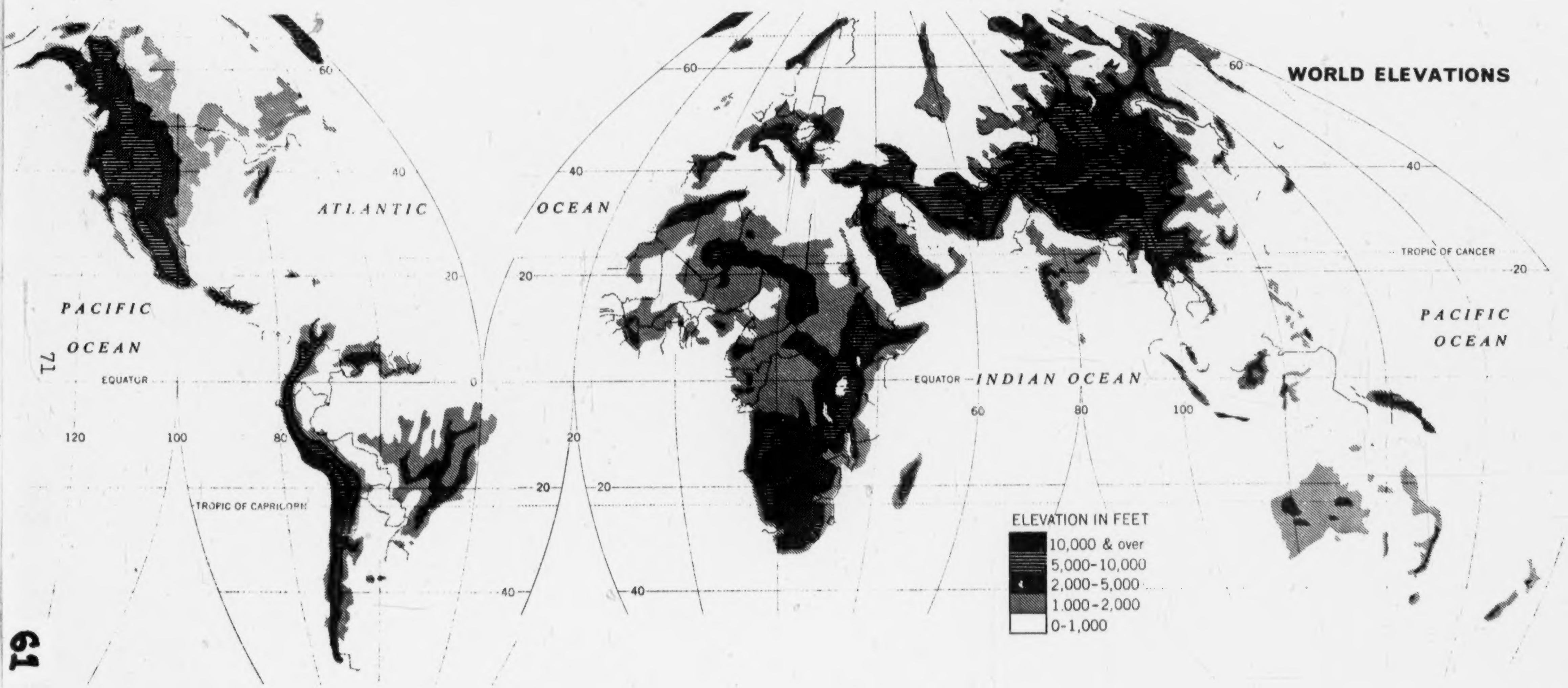
1. The four main types of landforms
2. World elevations
3. Major soil regions
4. Natural vegetation
5. World climate areas
6. World annual rainfall



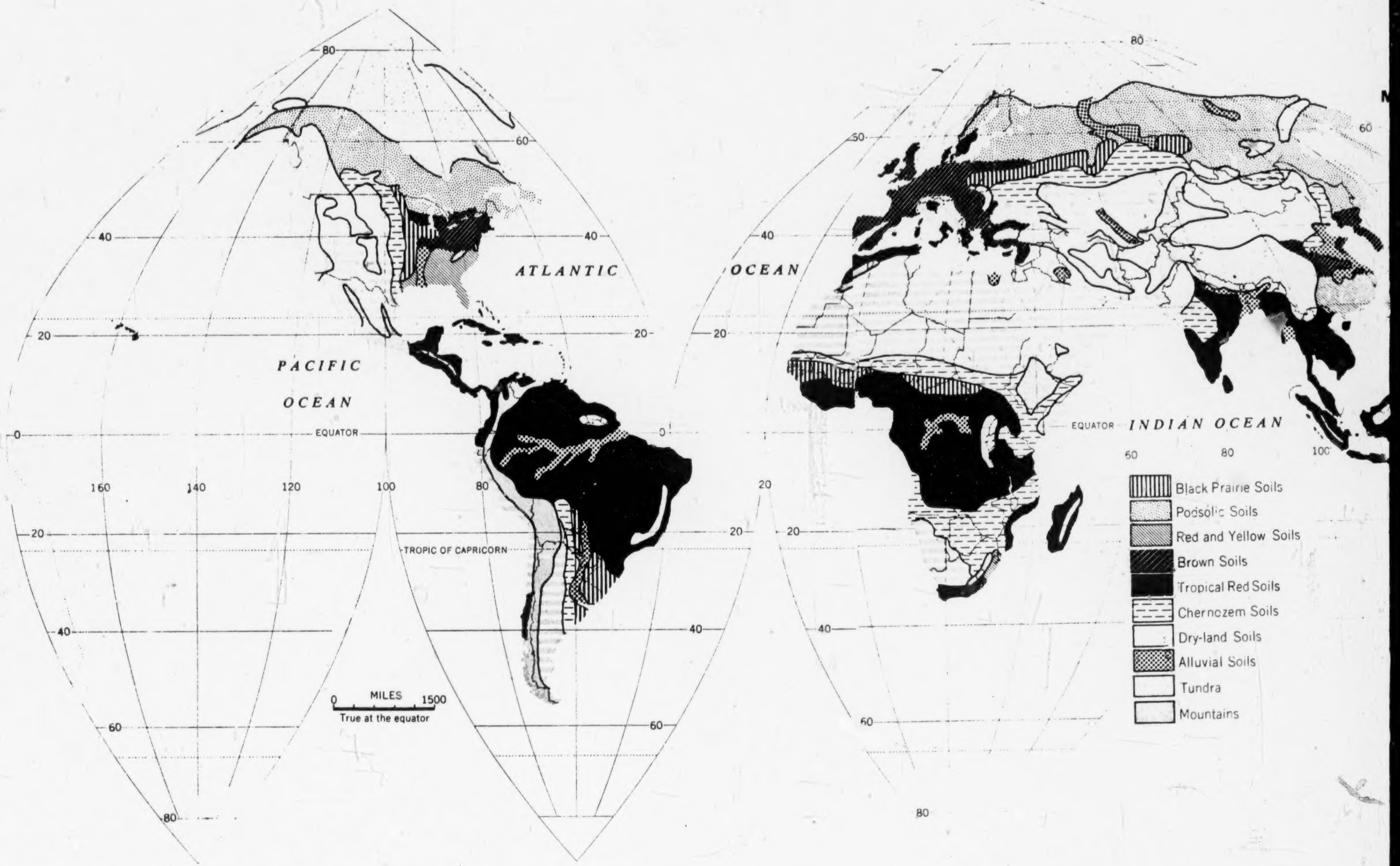
The four main types of landforms sketched above are: (1) mountains (2) hills, with much relief and little flat land (3) plateaus (4) plains, with low relief and much flat land.

Taken from The World Today: Its Patterns and Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963).

WORLD ELEVATIONS

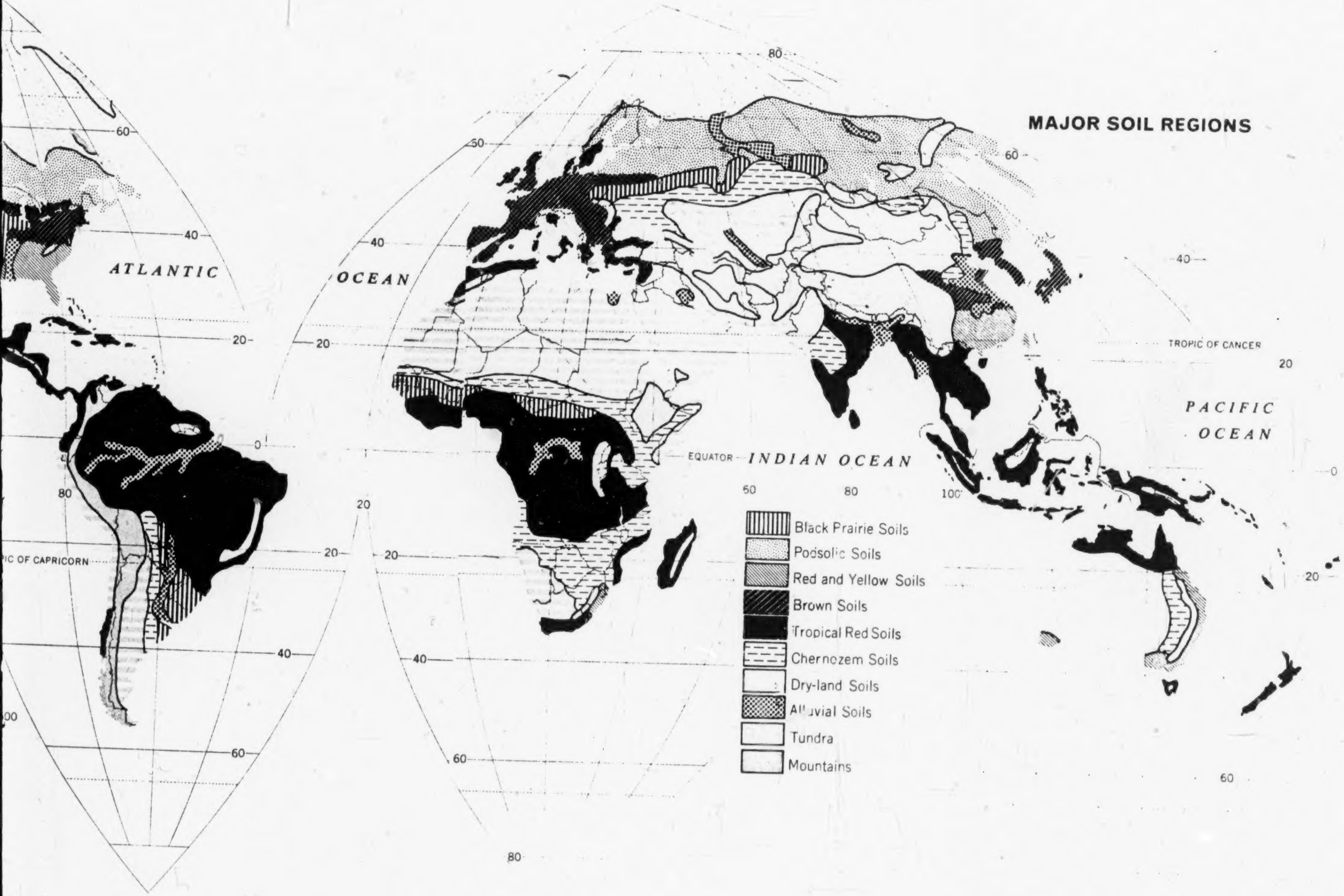

PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CANCER
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
60
40
20
0
20
40
120
100
80
60
80
100
ELEVATION IN FEET
10,000 & over
5,000-10,000
2,000-5,000
1,000-2,000
0-1,000

Taken from The World Today: Its Patterns and Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963).

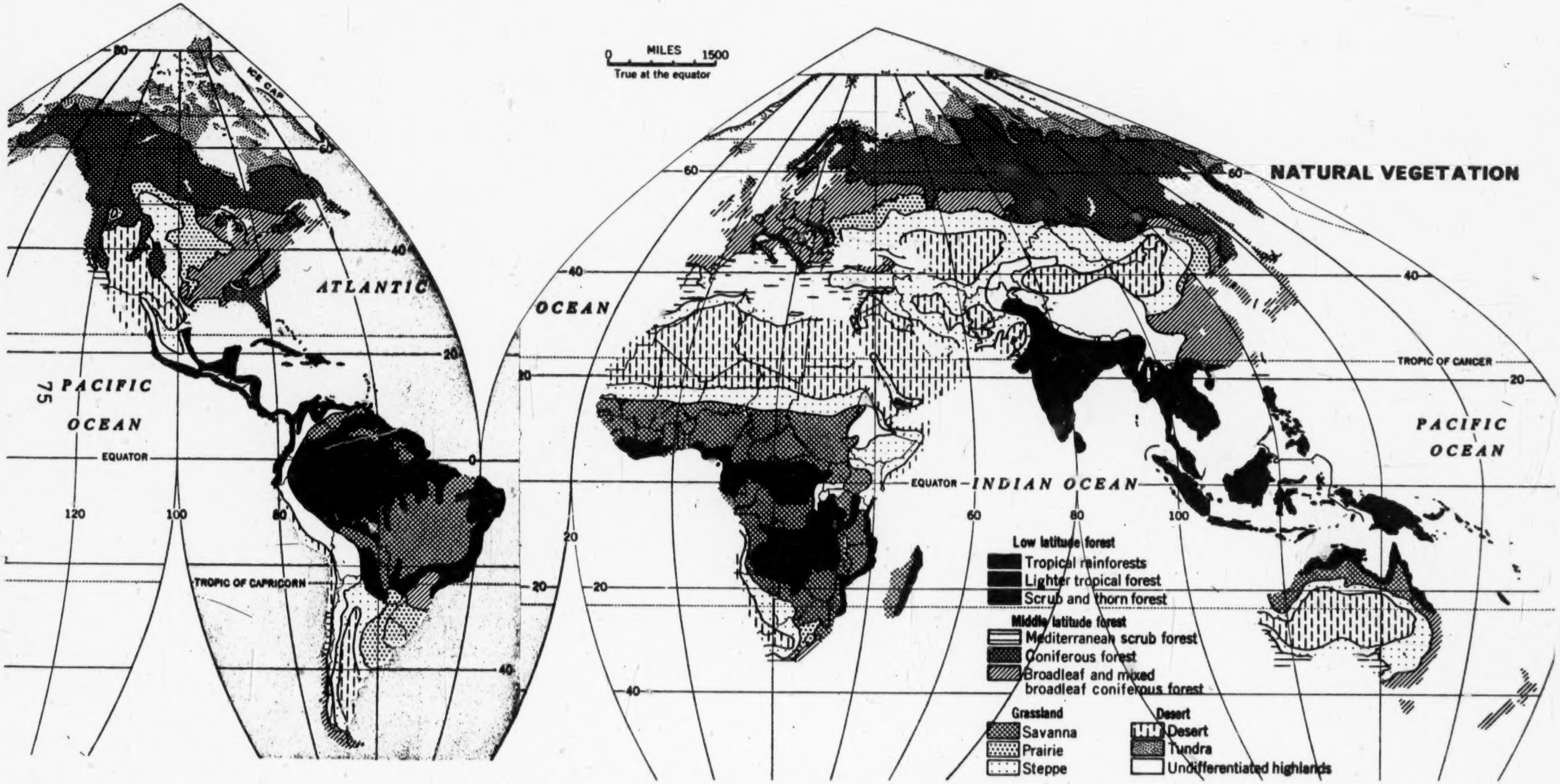

PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
MILES
0
1500
True at the equator
80
60
40
20
0
20
40
60
80
160
140
120
100
80
60
80
100
Black Prairie Soils
Podsolic Soils
Red and Yellow Soils
Brown Soils
Tropical Red Soils
Chernozem Soils
Dry-land Soils
Alluvial Soils
Tundra
Mountains

Taken from The World Today: Its Patterns and Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-H
Company, Inc.,

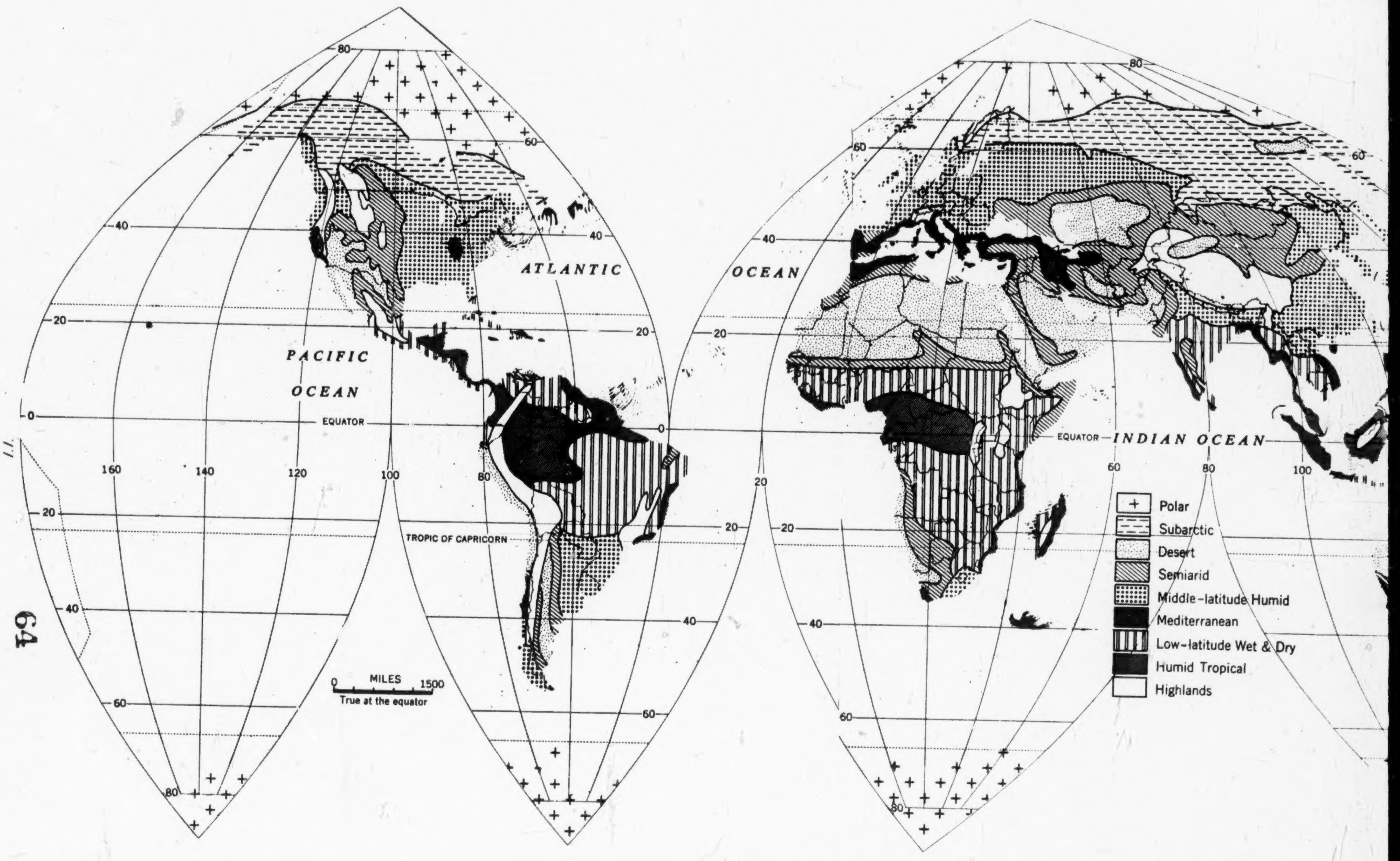
62A


MAJOR SOIL REGIONS
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC
OCEAN
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CANCER
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
80
60
50
40
20
0
100
Black Prairie Soils
Podsolic Soils
Red and Yellow Soils
Brown Soils
Tropical Red Soils
Chernozem Soils
Dry-land Soils
Alluvial Soils
Tundra
Mountains

s Patterns and Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963).

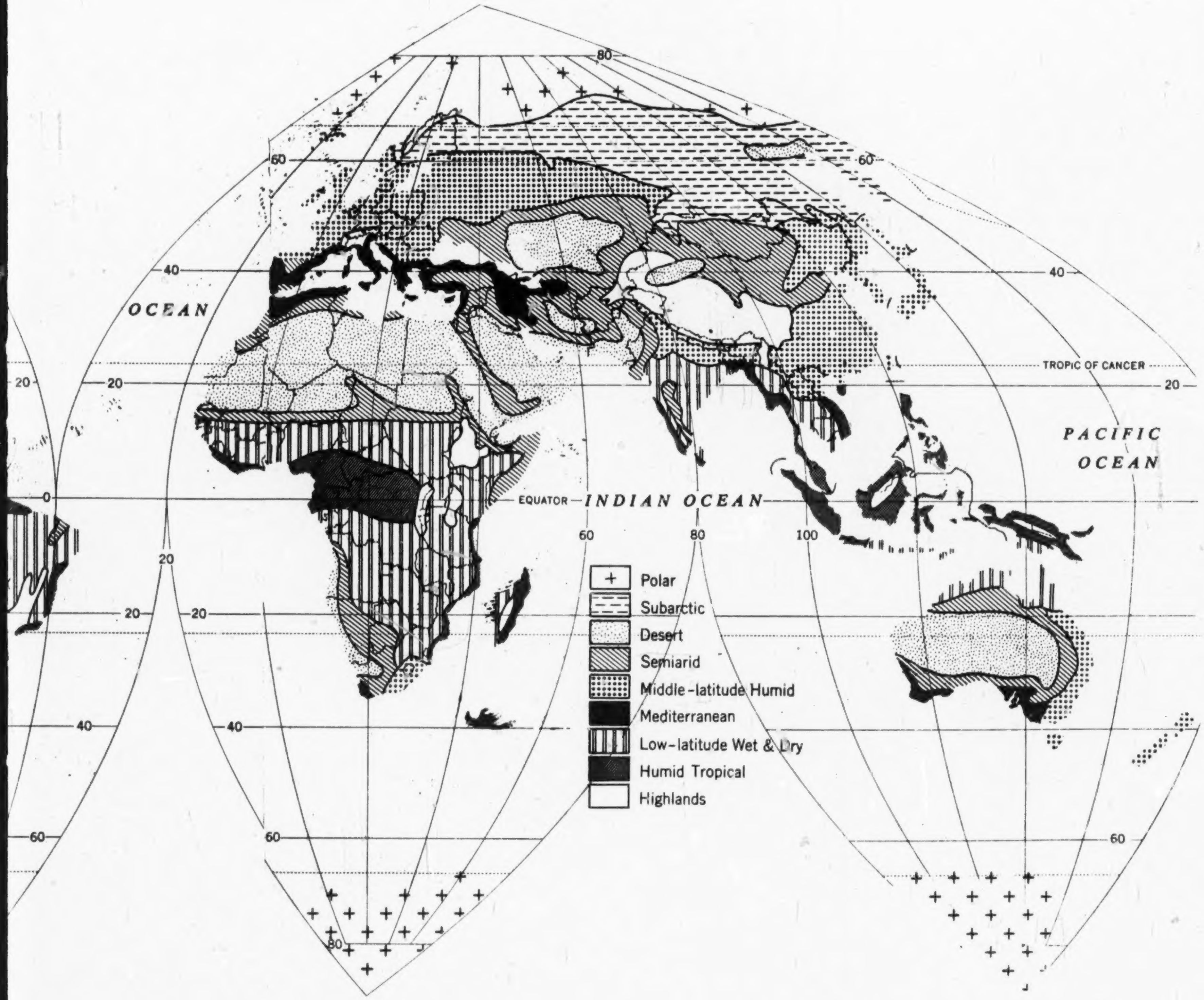

NATURAL VEGETATION
0 MILES 1500
True at the equator
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ICE CAP
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CANCER
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
80
60
40
20
0
20
40
120
100
80
60
40
20
60
80
100
Low latitude forest
Tropical rainforests
Lighter tropical forest
Scrub and thorn forest
Middle latitude forest
Mediterranean scrub forest
Coniferous forest
Broadleaf and mixed broadleaf coniferous forest
Grassland
Savanna
Prairie
Steppe
Desert
Desert
Tundra
Undifferentiated highlands

Taken from The World Today: Its Patterns and Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963).


PACIFIC
OCEAN
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
MILES
0
1500
True at the equator
80
60
40
20
0
160
140
120
100
Polar
Subarctic
Desert
Semiarid
Middle-latitude Humid
Mediterranean
Low-latitude Wet & Dry
Humid Tropical
Highlands

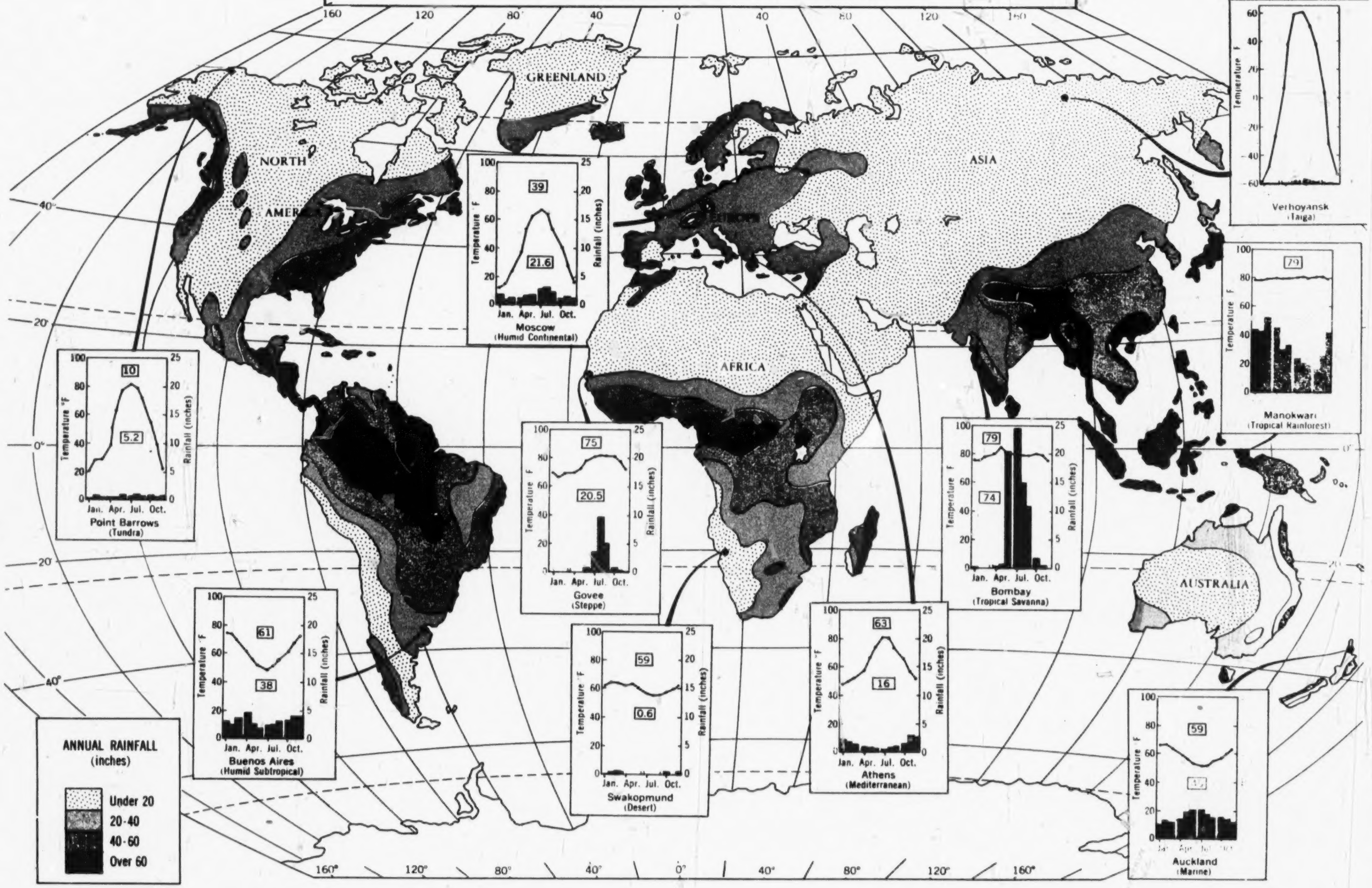
Taken from The World Today: Its Patterns and Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-Hil
Company, Inc., 1

64A


OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CANCER
80
60
40
20
0
100
+ Polar
Subarctic
Desert
Semiarid
Middle-latitude Humid
Mediterranean
Low-latitude Wet & Dry
Humid Tropical
Highlands

Cultures by Clyde F. Kohn and Dorothy Weitz Drummond (Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963).

World Annual Rainfall and Ten Climate Stations


GREENLAND
NORTH AMERICA
ASIA
AFRICA
AUSTRALIA
ANNUAL RAINFALL (inches)
Under 20
20-40
40-60
Over 60
Temperature °F
Rainfall (inches)
Jan. Apr. Jul. Oct.
Point Barrows (Tundra) 10 5.2
Moscow (Humid Continental) 39 21.6
Buenos Aires (Humid Subtropical) 61 38
Govee (Steppe) 75 20.5
Swakopmund (Desert) 59 0.6
Athens (Mediterranean) 63 16
Bombay (Tropical Savanna) 79 74
Manokwari (Tropical Rainforest) 79
Verhoyansk (Taiga)
Auckland (Marine) 59
160 120 80 40 0 40 80 120 160
40° 20° 0° 20° 40°

Taken from Our World and Its Peoples by Edward R. Kolevzon and John A. Heine (Chicago: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965).

HABITAT REGIONS OF THE WORLD

GROUPS OF HABITAT REGIONS	CLIMATE	WATER	VEGETATION	POSITION OF GROUP ON
1. Dry Lands	Arid	Deficient at all seasons	Desert	On western sides of conti 30° and continental inter tudes as far as 50° in No
2. Tropical Forest Lands	Tropical rainy climate with no cool season, in some cases with short, dry season.	Adequate at all seasons, or deficient only during brief dry season.	Tropical rain forest and tropical seasonal forest, composed of species that cannot stand frost.	Along equator, extending on western sides of conti 25° on eastern sides of c
3. Tropical Woodlands and Savannas	Tropical climate with no cool season, and with distinct rainy and dry seasons; semiarid on dry margins; rainy season usually in summer of hemisphere.	Deficient during dry season.	Deciduous woodlands and savannas, parklands.*	In transition zone betwee and those of Group 2.
4. Mediterranean Woodlands	Mild rainy winters and dry summers. Cool summers close to west coast, hot summers away from open oceans. Semiarid along dry margins.	Deficient during summer.	Broadleaf, evergreen scrub woodlands, and evergreen brush.	On western sides of conti 40°.
5. Mid-latitude Mixed Forest Lands	Climates with mild winters or severe winters along northern margins in Northern Hemisphere only. Mostly rainy in all months, but with more rain in summer than in winter in continental interiors and along eastern sides. Cool summers on western sides of continent, hot summers in continental interiors and along eastern sides.	Adequate at all seasons.	Seasonal forests, including evergreen, needleleaf trees and broadleaf, deciduous trees, or mixture of these.	On western sides of conti 60°; on eastern sides of 25° and 45°; in continent latitudes to east of dry

*A Geography of a Man, 3rd ed., P.E. James, Blaisdell, 1966.

HABITAT REGIONS OF THE WORLD

WATER	VEGETATION	POSITION OF GROUP ON CONTINENTS
eficient at all seasons	Desert	On western sides of continents between 20° and 30° and continental interiors of middle latitudes as far as 50° in Northern Hemisphere.
dequate at all seasons, r deficient only during rief dry season.	Tropical rain forest and tropical seasonal forest, composed of species that cannot stand frost.	Along equator, extending as far as 10° or 15° on western sides of continents, and as far as 25° on eastern sides of continents.
eficient during dry eason.	Deciduous woodlands and savannas, parklands.*	In transition zone between regions of Group 1 and those of Group 2.
eficient during summer.	Broadleaf, evergreen scrub woodlands, and evergreen brush.	On western sides of continents between 30° and 40°.
dequate at all seasons.	Seasonal forests, including evergreen, needleleaf trees and broadleaf, deciduous trees, or mixture of these.	On western sides of continents between 40° and 60°; on eastern sides of continents between 25° and 45°; in continental interiors of middle latitudes to east of dry lands and grasslands.

1966.

GROUPS OF HABITAT REGIONS	CLIMATE	WATER	VEGETATION	POSITION OF GRO
6. Mid-latitude	Climates with mild winters or severe winters along northern margin in Northern Hemisphere only. Maximum rainfall in summer. Semi-arid along dry margin.	Adequate at all seasons on wet margins bordering Group 5; or inadequate during dry seasons, and during periods of frequent drought, throughout most of group.	Tall prairie grasslands on wet margins, short steppe grasslands on dry margins. Parklands.	Bordering regions nental interiors
7. Boreal Forest Lands	Severe, snowy winters, with cool summers. Maximum rainfall in summer, with very dry winters in interior of Asia. Only in Northern Hemisphere.	Water adequate at all seasons, or deficient during dry winters.	Seasonal forests and woodlands. Mostly evergreen, needleleaf trees, but with some mixture of broadleaf, deciduous trees. Scrub woodlands along northern margins.	On northern sides continents only. of 60°; on eastern continental interi Group 5.
8. Polar Lands	Climates with no summers (i.e., with average temperatures below 50° in all months.)	Deficient during cold season, or deficient throughout year.	Tundra, polar desert	In Northern Hemisp on western sides o 50° or 60° on east In Southern Hemisp Antartica.
9. Mountain Lands	Climate depends on altitude. Very little seasonal difference in low latitudes; severe winters in middle latitudes. Great contrast in small areas between very dry, or between sunny and shady.	Great contrasts within small areas between water abundance and water deficiency.	Vegetation belts depend on altitude (vertical zones), except no vegetation in higher latitudes.	Irregularly arrang latitudes and long has own unique pat On the globe, moun which come togethe borders of China, and India.

67

WATER	VEGETATION	POSITION OF GROUP ON CONTINENTS
dequate at all seasons n wet margins bordering roup 5; or inadequate uring dry seasons, and uring periods of fre- uent drought, through- ut most of group.	Tall prairie grasslands on wet margins, short steppe grasslands on dry margins. Parklands.	Bordering regions of Group 1 in continental interiors of middle latitudes.
ater adequate at all easons, or deficient uring dry winters.	Seasonal forests and woodlands. Mostly evergreen, needleleaf trees, but with some mixture of broadleaf, deciduous trees. Scrub woodlands along northern margins.	On northern sides of Northern Hemisphere continents only. On western sides north of 60°; on eastern sides north of 45°; in continental interiors north of regions of Group 5.
ficient during cold eason, or deficient roughout year.	Tundra, polar desert	In Northern Hemisphere north of 60° or 70° on western sides of continents, and north of 50° or 60° on eastern sides of continents. In Southern Hemisphere, whole continent of Antartica.
eat contrasts within all areas between ter abundance and ter deficiency.	Vegetation belts depend on altitude (vertical zones), except no vegetation in higher latitudes.	Irregularly arranged with respect to latitudes and longitudes. Each continent has own unique pattern of high mountains. On the globe, mountains form three arms which come together in mountains on borders of China, Soviet Union, Afghanistan, and India.

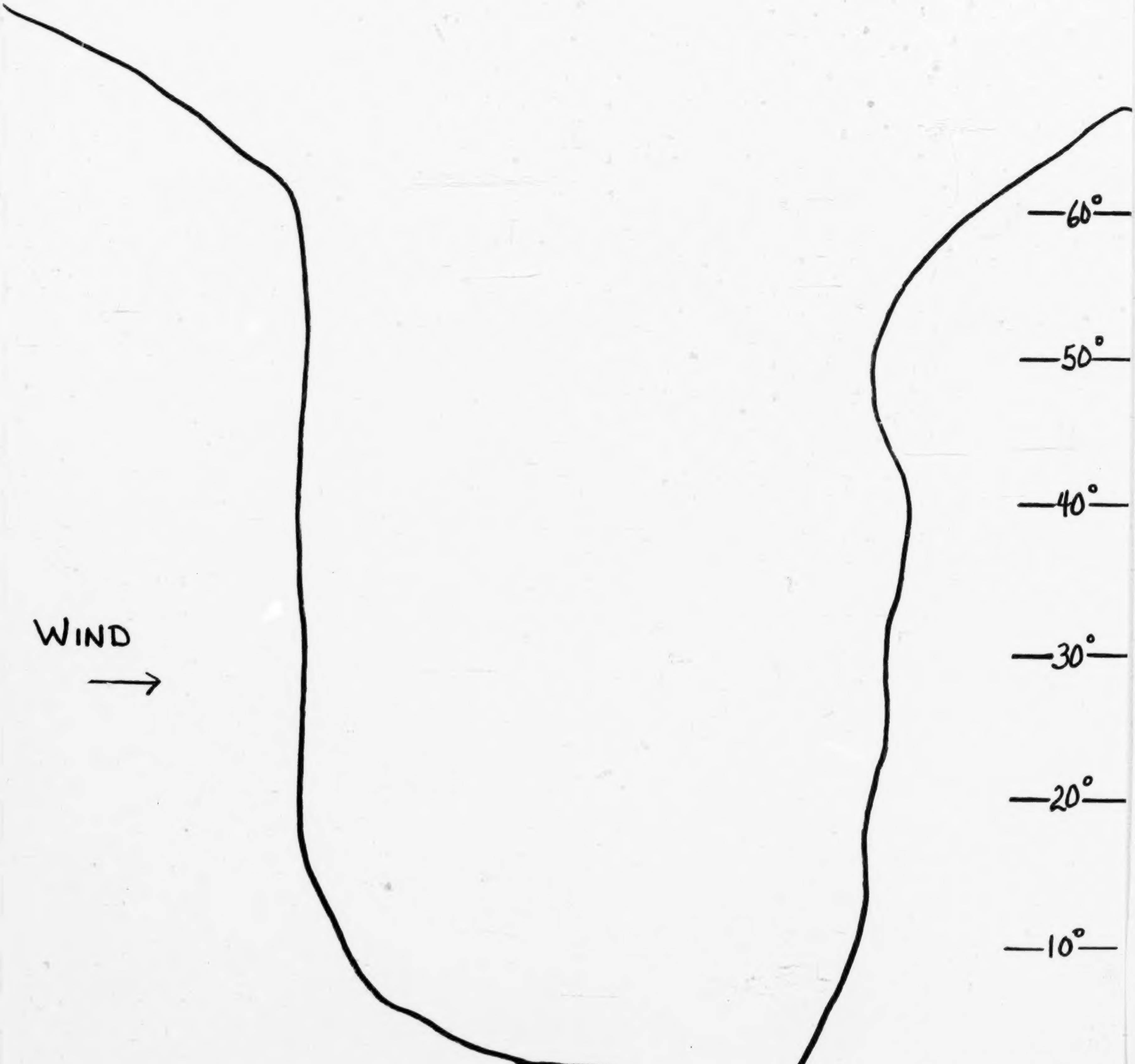
TRANSPARENCY MASTERS, PROJECTS AND TESTS FOR UNIT III

1. Test - Physical Geography (pre-test and final test)
2. Landforms and settlement patterns
3. Map project
4. Contract - Physical Geography

TEST - PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

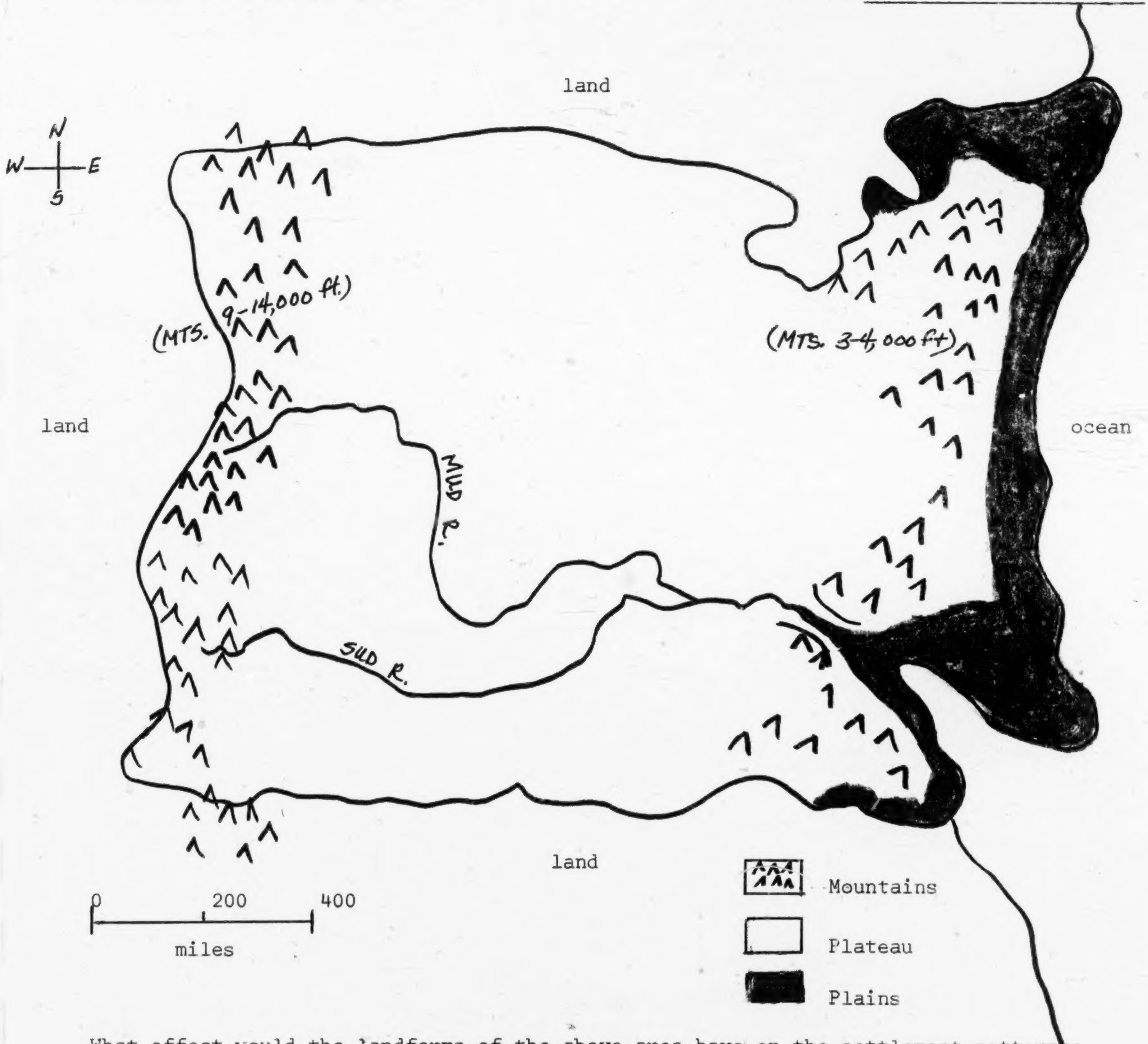
1. Draw a mountain range, plateau and plain in logical relationship to each other. Color to show probable elevations. Make a legend to show the elevation meaning of your colors.
2. Make three major river systems in logical places.
3. Draw in one large valley in a logical place.
4. Label three different vegetation types in logical places.
5. Label four different climate types in their probable locations. Describe it with two or more words if you cannot think of its name.
6. Label three different soil types in their probable location. Describe the fertility of each in a few words.

TEST - PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY


WIND
60°
50°
40°
30°
20°
10°
0°

Directions: Write a paragraph on settlement patterns as you would find them in the situations stated in a, b, and c.

NAME ____________________
SECTION ____________________
TEACHER ____________________


land
N
W
E
S
(MTS. 9-14,000 ft.)
(MTS. 3-4,000 ft)
land
ocean
MUD R.
SUD R.
land
0
200
400
miles
Mountains
Plateau
Plains

What effect would the landforms of the above area have on the settlement patterns:

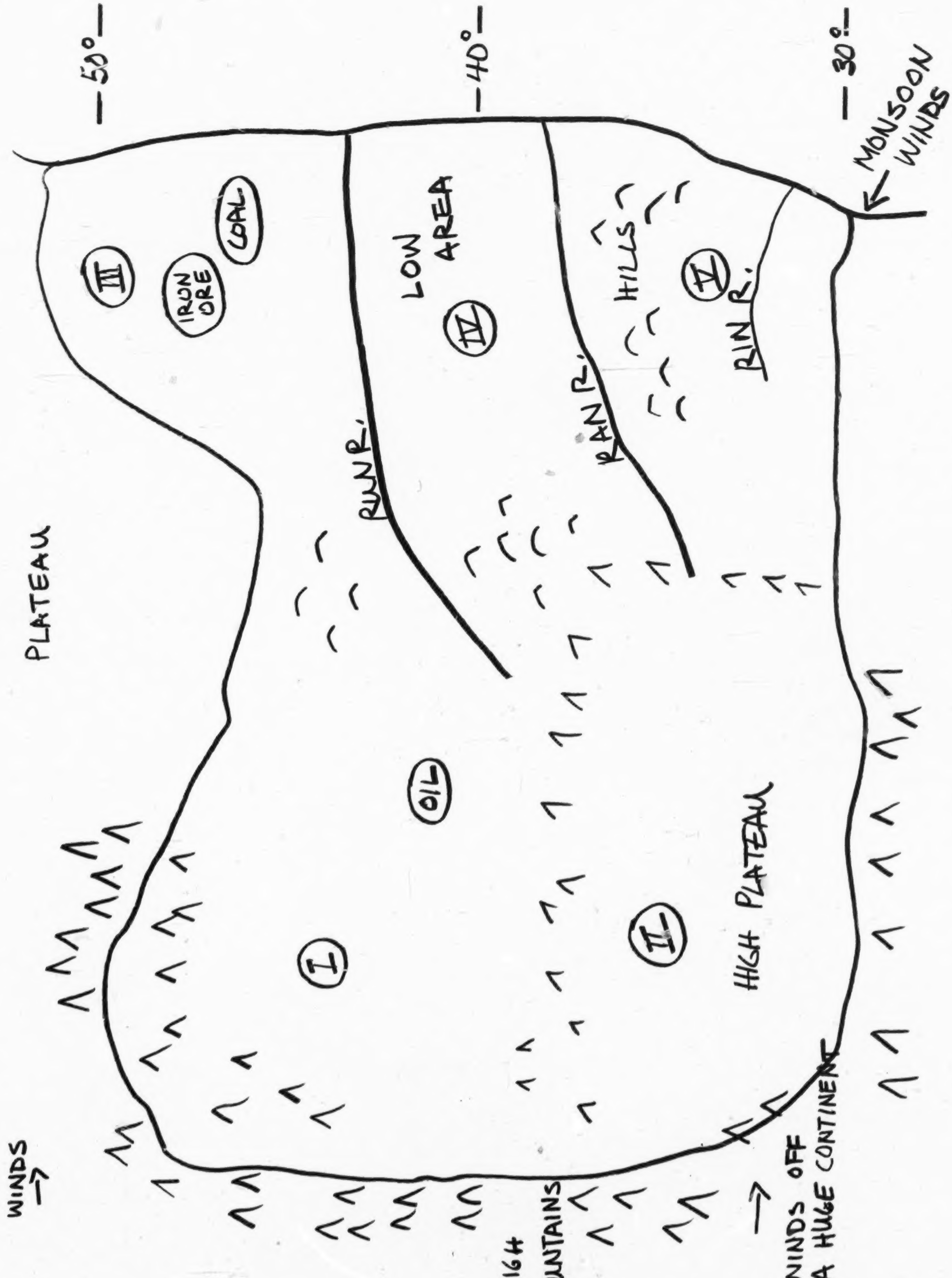
a. If the latitude positions were from 10° north to 10° south?

b. If the latitude positions were from 40° north to 60° north?

c. If the latitude positions were from 10° north to 30° north?

MAP PROJECT

1. Speculate as to the climate types for areas I, II, III, IV, and V and give reasons why this would be so.
2. On the map handed out to you shade in the areas you think would be heavily populated and shade lightly towards areas with little population.
3. Assuming this country has the technical knowledge (technology), where would its heavy industry be located?
4. Which area would profit the most from an irrigation project?
5. Compare and contrast the winter of area III to that of Area IV.
6. The winds coming off the ocean are monsoon. Describe their effect on the land in terms of rain. What time of the year would they come?
7. Assuming you made your living from the land, list possible occupations in areas I through V.



50°
40°
30°
MONSOON WINDS
PLATEAU
III
IRON ORE
COAL
LOW AREA
IV
HILLS
V
RUN R.
RAN R.
RIN R.
OIL
I
II
HIGH PLATEAU
WINDS →
HIGH MOUNTAINS
→ WINDS OFF A HUGE CONTINENT

NAME____________________________

SECTION_________________________

TEACHER_________________________

CONTRACT - PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

1. Describe mountains in terms of slope, altitude, summit area and relationship to plains and plateaus. (pp 42, 43, Our World and Its Peoples)

2. Describe plateaus in terms of elevation, flat land and relation to surrounding land (p 45, Our World and Its Peoples)

3. Describe rivers in terms of flat land, elevation and reason for being there. (p 46, Our World and Its Peoples)

4. Soils are determined by the combination of climate and vegetation. Study the handout on "Habitat Regions of the World" and determine the probable soil types for each climate area. Chapter 5 in Man's World: A Physical Geography would be helpful in doing this. List the climate types and corresponding soil types below with a comment on the usefulness of that soil type to man.

UNIT IV

INTRODUCTION TO ANTHROPOLOGY

UNIT IV - INTRODUCTION TO ANTHROPOLOGY

OBJECTIVES

I. Generalizations

A. Culture is a set of learned behavior patterns that are characteristic of a society and are not biologically inherited.

B. Cultural anthropology is the study of the social behavior of man and the products of such behavior.

II. Skills and abilities

A. Ability to analyze anthropologic materials in terms of the author's assumptions.

B. Ability to recognize fact from opinion.

C. Ability to propose a plan to solve a problem.

D. Ability to make generalizations based on anthropological material.

E. Ability to communicate by writing and speaking ideas to others.

II. Affective objectives

A. Develop student acceptance of a value.

Acceptance of method of inquiry as a valid procedure for solving problems.

B. Recognition of anthropologic stimuli (i.e., case studies, artifacts, etc.)

CONTENT

I. Cultural anthropology is the study of the social behavior of man and the products of that behavior.

A. There are two branches of the field of anthropology.
1. Physical
2. Cultural

B. Cultural anthropologists study societies in an attempt to identify and explain their behavior patterns.

1. Each community studied affords the anthropologist a laboratory setting where something approaching the total scope of a cultural system can be observed.

2. These simpler cultures give us a sounding board against which we can judge our own ways.

(The content used to teach this generalization will be taken from "A Simpler Society, A Cultural Anthropologist in the Field".)

II. Culture is a set of learned behavior patterns characteristic of a society and not biologically inherited.

(The content used in this unit will be based on two case studies taken from Four Ways of Being Human, by Gene Lisitzky. The content will also be used to develop the concepts of ethnocentrism, culture variability, force of conformity, and culture change.)

Reading: Four Ways of Being Human, pp 129-207, a case study of the Maori of New Zealand. Also pp 211-298, a case study of the Hopi Indians of Southwestern United States.

Note: This reading will also be put on tape and placed on dial access for the slow reading student.

TEACHING PROCEDURES

Generalizations

A. Cultural anthropology is the study of the social behavior of man and the products of such behavior.

1. Independent study: Reading A Simpler Society--A Cultural Anthropologist in the Field.

2. Small group: Discussion based on the Independent Study reading of A Simpler Society. Begin discussion by location of Village in Africa and why the particular village was picked. The following question should be asked to bring out the first generalization.

Question: Why was this particular group of people chosen by this anthropologist? What did he hope to accomplish by his study? How did he gather his information? What were some of the things he found out about this group of people? Based on what you have said this far, what, in your opinion, would be a good definition of cultural anthropology?

B. Culture is a set of learned behavior patterns characteristic of a society and not biologically inherited.

1. Large group
The purpose here will be to confuse student and bring him to the realization that his life is patterned.

a. Lecturer will give a nonsense lecture. Put on transparency with notes to be taken in different languages.

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   b. Have six students seated on stage and give no reasons for their being there. Later in lecture two could faint and be treated by using bathroom plunger. (Old Chinese medical practice of treatment by suction.)
   c. Introduce assistant principal to make important announcement. It will be relative to new school starting times (3:00 A.M. to 9:00 A.M.) and the new school dress code (orange shoes, pink hats, purple bermudas, etc.)
   d. Introduce guest who will give talk about his new position as controller of all things in the city (political, social, legal).

2. Show film The Pygmies. (U. of M.) Tell students before they view the film that you want them to identify as many behavior patterns as they can while they watch the film.

3. A speaker will be secured from a minority group explaining the position of his group within the context of our society.

4. Small group: Discussion of lecture. What was learned from the lecture? Why didn't it make sense? Should it have made sense? Do things that you normally do make sense? If they do, or do not, in what way? What can we deduct from the large group and small group discussion about man's behavior?

   Teacher note: Content listed under I is brought out in this activity.

5. Discussion of film The Pygmies. Have students give examples of the behavior patterns they identified. If you were an anthropologist, how do you think you would gather your information? What kinds of information could you gather from observation? What kinds of information would you get from personal interviews?

6. Several small groups will be devoted to the discussion of the Maori and Hopi for the purpose of bringing the student to the discovery of the concepts of ethnocentrism, culture variability, force of conformity, and culture change.

7. Independent study:

   Reading to be done by second small group meeting:
   Understanding Other Cultures, pp 1-16 (High and high average)
   Four Ways of Being Human, pp 13-23 (High average and high)
   The Wide World, pp 154-155; 157-161 (Average and above)
   Anthropology for Today's World, pp 3-6 (Low ability)

INDEPENDENT STUDY PROJECT "A" AND "B"

Read the following poem by Jo Tenjford, and write a paper of no less than 200 words making sure that you comment on all of the following questions.

How do you explain the fact that this poet seems to be pointing out the differences among children and yet refers constantly to the idea that the children are "like you"?

Is this inconsistency or can you find any possible proof that people can be alike and different at the same time?

Defend your position with any factual data you are able to gather.

Note to student: Ideas for your answer may be found in Understanding Other Cultures, pp 17-30 (paperback).

SOME CHILDREN ARE. . . .

Some children are brown
    like newly baked bread,
Some children are yellow
    and some are red,
Some children are white
    and some almost blue
Their colors are different--
    the children like you!

Some children eat porridge
    and some eat figs,
Some children like ice cream
    and some roasted pigs!
Some eat raw fishes
    and some Irish stew---
Their likings are different--
    the children like you!

Some children say "yes"
    and some say "oui"
Some say "ja"
    and some say "si",
Some children say "peep",
    and some say "booh"--
Their words may be different--
    the children like you!

Some children wear sweaters
    and some rebozos,
Some children wear furs
    and some kimonos,
Some children go naked
    and wear only their queue.
Their clothes may be different--
    the children like you!

*Ideas for this project were taken from Perti J. Pelto, The Study of Anthropology, Charles E. Merrill, Social Science Seminar Series, pp 83-85.

Some children have houses
  of stone in the streets,
Some live in igloos,
  and some live on fleets,
Some live in old straw huts
  and some in new--
Their homes may be different--
  the children like you!

Some children are Finnish
  and some from Japan,
Some are Norwegian
  and some from Sudan.
Oh yes, we have children
  in valley, on pike.
Their countries are different--
  the children alike!

Oh, if they could dance
  and if they could play
Altogether together
  a wonderful day!
Some could come sailing
  and some could just hike!
So much would be different--
  the children alike!

INDEPENDENT STUDY PROJECT "C"

Reading: pp 7-8, *Anthropology in Today's World*.

Directions: Write a paragraph on the following topics:

A. To what extent is *your* life governed by the clock? When is it not?

B. What other aspects of American culture might the Eskimo anthropologist have chosen as typical?

READING SELECTIONS

1. *A Simpler Society - A Cultural Anthropologist in the Field*
2. *The One Hundred Percent American*
3. *How to Look at Other People*

A SIMPLER SOCIETY

A Cultural Anthropologist in the Field

Across the high plains of eastern Africa a station wagon chugged along, heavily laden with luggage and bundles belonging to the three people on the front seat: a young anthropologist, his wife and their seven-year-old son.

They were happily leaving behind them the comforts of Kampala, the major city of Uganda. Ahead lay a location suggested by the East African Institute of Social Research as a likely headquarters for six months of field work; it lay among the Sebei people on the slope of Mt. Elgon, near the Kenya border.

Why this particular tribe? The choice had been determined by a number of factors, not all of them scientific. As a family man, the anthropologist wanted a location that would be suitable for a young American boy, one that offered no particular health risks such as the disease-bearing tse-tse fly found in much of West Africa.

On the scientific side, our anthropologist wanted to study a people whose culture had not yet been fully described; in doing so he hoped he might make a contribution to knowledge in his field. For anthropology is the study of human beings as members of society.

He wanted to study and describe one of the fast-disappearing groups whose ways of living are as yet little touched by the mechanized societies beyond their boundaries. As our Western ways spread relentlessly around the world, peoples who go on unchanged by them are no longer easy to find.

There are still some few Eskimo tribes living according to their age-old patterns--which, incidentally, include no understanding of the idea of war. There may be a few South Pacific islands which have not yet been invaded and changed by pale-skinned intruders. In the jungle fastnesses or desert wilds of Africa and South America a dwindling few tribes still go their own ways. But civilization is closing in upon them. The aboriginal bushmen of Australia have all but vanished under the press of civilization.

"Wherever we find a steel knife," says the anthropologist, with a sigh, "we know we are too late to find an untouched group." Still, the remainder of traditional ways among many groups are of great interest. So also are the ways in which various once-isolated peoples are adjusting to their contacts with the outside world.

The study of these so-called primitive cultures--including not only what they eat and wear and make and how they take shelter from the weather, but also their speech, their songs, their often elaborate patterns for living together, the knowledge and beliefs which they pass down from generation to generation--this study gives us insight into the basic ways of mankind and the nature of social life. Primitive cultures, as one leading anthropologist put it, "are a laboratory in which we may study the diversity of human institutions." These varied institutions and customs, in turn, give us a sounding board against which to judge our own ways--the "culture patterns" to which we are so close that we cannot see them clearly.

Our anthropologist hoped within the short six months available to him to become acquainted through observation and personal experience with some of the living patterns of one little-known African group, the Sebei. And through photographs and notes he planned to make a record of what he learned, with attention to distinguishing characteristics or customs. His description of this culture might, our anthropologist hoped, contribute a bit to the sum of man's knowledge of his fellow man.

Where the anthropologist and his family were to make their home for the next months there was scarcely any village at all. Not more than a handful of houses was in sight. The Sebei are a rural people who live scattered over the land, very much as American farmers do, rather than in central villages as do many European farmers.

Fortunately the community contained a large hut planned for visitors, which was unoccupied and available. Its walls were of sticks plastered over with mud daub and whitewashed. Its roof was of thatch; there were no doors or windows.

Besides this hut the visitors unloaded their car and unpacked what they needed to start housekeeping. Then they set about making themselves at home. They had a camp stove to cook on and a canvas tub for baths when the stream was too low for bathing.

The chief recommended a man of the neighborhood to act as interpreter for the anthropologist. This man had been educated at an English-language school--a mission school, as they all are in this area, since the British have established no government-supported school system.

"Of course it is much better if you can learn the native language," the anthropologist admits apologetically. "But we had only six months, and the languages of this area have absolutely nothing in common with any we are acquainted with. Not only are the words unfamiliar but so are the sounds themselves, to say nothing of the whole system of grammar. Plurals, for example, are completely different words from the singulars.

"Even had I known the language, I should still have needed an intelligent assistant who understood the sort of information I wanted, to help me in gaining some insight into the life of the community. My interpreter acted as a field assistant too.

"My wife had her own interpreter, a fourteen-year-old girl, one of two in the community who spoke some English."

As weeks drifted by, the family settled into a new routine. Trails led out into the countryside, and the visitors soon found their way down a number of these, always accompanied by their trusted interpreters.

Sometimes, taking a good-sized canvas tent, they made longer, overnight trips. As they traveled and listened and looked, they began to feel the pattern underlying the lives of the Sebei people.

Every two weeks the visitors made a four-hour trip down the zig-zag mountain road to Mbale, the nearest sizable settlement. There, in small Indian-owned shops, they bought meat and groceries; in the African market they bought papayas, bananas, pineapples and other fresh foods. Usually they spent the night in the government rest house before starting the climb back up the mountain.

Closer to their headquarters there were only the local dukas, which stocked kerosene, nails and a few odds and ends. Once every two weeks, there was the open-air market at nearby Tyebonet.

To the open-air market came traders from the outside, all of them African, with their stocks of variety-store goods: cheap pottery bowls, razor blades, beads, sharp-bladed pangas. Here local people brought their beans, goat hides, bananas, vegetables or fruits to sell. Or they came driving cattle to the noisy, dusty cattle market.

These days every Sebei needs to have something he can sell for cash. For there are taxes to pay. One needs an occasional length of cloth for new clothes. A man's wife wants to buy something from one of the peddlers, who must be paid in coin. If one is a man of means, one likes to have a ticking wrist watch to wear or a bicycle to ride.

Several men of the neighborhood have acquired old trucks to drive. The local chief has a jeep. Five farmers have joined together to buy a tractor, the first in the region. So there are more and more uses for cash!

These Sebei have been for centuries a cattle-raising people. In the eastern section of their territory, they still live by cattle, though some centuries before the coming of the British they had adopted some agriculture and now occasionally use oxen for plowing fields.

In the moister western part of the country, the Sebei raise several sorts of plantain or bananas, which form the basis of their diet. These they cook or pound to make a kind of porridge or bread. They also grow some maize, related to our corn.

In the middle section of Sebei territory, some grain is grown--millet or maize; there are some yams and plantains, some manioc roots and beans. Wild greens and young bamboo shoots are gathered for eating, and ants are considered a delicacy.

But everybody still has some cattle. A man's position in the community depends upon the number of cattle he owns and wives he has. The number of wives he has depends largely on the cattle he can afford to pay for them as a bride price.

No longer do the Sebei regularly drink blood from living cattle for nourishment, but milk is an important part of their food supply, drunk by adults as well as by children. Some of the milk is allowed to sour to make a sort of cheese.

Every fortnight or so a head of beef is slaughtered. Unless the animal is being killed for ceremonial purposes, it is usually an aged or injured member of the herd.

Crops, markets, governments--all these, the anthropologist knows, have been strongly influenced by the world outside. It is in the social life of the Sebei people that he hopes to find their traditional and distinctive ways still in full operation.

Social life among the Sebei is based on the clan and the sub-clan. A clan or "aret" is made up of the group of people who all trace their descent from one common ancestor. It is a kind of family. The sub-clans are headed by "brothers" of the common ancestor, though these brothers are not necessarily sons of the same parents.

If you are a Sebei, the aret to which you belong is important to you in various ways. You feel a sense of loyalty to the other members, a loyality reaching back into the traditions of the past. You would willingly offer a fellow clan member protection. In the old days you would have joined clan members in pursuing a blood feud against another clan. You would take care to choose your marriage partner from outside your clan, to avoid marrying a close relative.

Every Sebei has several such loyalties, the anthropologist finds. He belongs to a tribe, to an aret or clan; he also belongs to an age-grade group. Sometime between the ages of thirteen and nineteen, usually between sixteen and eighteen, both boys and girls are initiated into their age-grade groups.

Adolescence is a time of change in life recognized by many peoples with special ceremonies.

To an anthropologist the exact form of the local ceremonies is not of as much concern as their meaning to the group. For these coming-of-age initiations recognize the boy's or girl's new status as an adult. In the ceremonial preparation for adulthood it is possible to see reflected some of the values of the people.

If warfare is of great importance, the young men as they come of age will be prepared for the hardships and suffering of battle. If marriage is the immediate goal of the coming-of-age for a girl, she may be welcomed into the world of grown women with tests of her endurance, with beauty rites to make her a more desirable bride, with ceremonial performance of women's tasks such as grinding of meal and baking of bread.

Some tribes have initiations mainly for the boys; others, mainly for the girls. Still others, including the Sebei, initiate both.

There is not a strictly set time for these ceremonies. Recently, initiations have been held every year, whereas in the old days six or seven years' crop of young boys or girls were bracketed together in one age "class."

In those old, independent herding days, the age-grade groups made up the basic military groups for men, running all across Sebeiland.

Age-grade membership also imposed certain social obligations, such as that of inviting age-grade brothers to parties and sharing with them the meat of a slaughtered cow. Also, one was not supposed to marry the daughter of an age-grade brother.

Soon after our anthropologist's arrival a class of six girls in the nearby community started on the elaborate ritual which runs through most of six months. Since the anthropologist was able to learn a good deal about these ceremonies at first hand, let us follow it in some detail.

The first high point of the girls' initiation was a ceremony testing endurance. To this the anthropologist and his wife were invited, along with all the relatives of the girls. The celebration really had begun the day before, with instruction in native herbal medicines for the girl initiates followed by an evening of dancing and general festivity. For these twenty-four hours the girls were constantly walking or dancing, a real test of endurance.

The ceremony was a painful one for the girls, involving special cuttings of their flesh with a cruelly-dull knife blade. But to give in to the pain by making any sound was quite against the standards of the tribe. A girl who so much as moaned aloud would be disgraced, she might marry, but she could never be a first wife.

All this the anthropologist had been told by his interpreter before the ceremony began. And he saw the girls, one after another, stiffen their lips, while beads of sweat dotting their faces told silently of their pain.

Then suddenly there came a cry! It was one of the beauties of the community who had broken under the stress. The anthropologist saw pain and anger darken her father's face at the sound. He lunged forward in rage and had to be held back from doing violence to his daughter who had brought disgrace upon him and her whole family.

What of the girl herself? Must she go through life bearing the burden of this guilt? No, to the Sebei it was clear that a sorcerer had bewitched her, and it was under the power of a magic spell that she had cried out. So she was permitted to continue through the remaining steps of the initiation with the rest of the group.

The next few days the girls spent in seclusion, while their painful wounds healed. Their hair was shaved, and when next they appeared they were painted with light clay for their official "coming out." (Perhaps it is not too difficult to see a parallel to the hair-curlers, the creams and oils and "paints" with which girls in our society prepare themselves when meeting young men.)

Now the girls made a point of going out in public. All those who could made the trip to the biweekly market; for they wanted to be seen and admired by as many as possible of the men in search of wives.

The next event after the "coming out" was an evening which reminded the anthropologist and his wife of our Halloween.

It was one of the marvelously beautiful nights which are one of the delights of Sebeiland. The girls, joined by younger boys and girls who were not yet initiated, gathered together. They had collected baskets of Apples of Sodom, like hard yellow tomatoes. These the children carried on their heads. They went singing down the trail, from one thatched house to another and pelted the doors with these fruits until the women came out and gave them grain from their granaries. It was much like our own "trick or treat," all in high spirits. The grain was used to provide beer for a party which would follow after some weeks.

Sometime later came the final open-air ceremony of the initiation. It re-introduced the young women to the ordinary routine of life, after a period of being set apart. Now they were accepted into the workaday world as women rather than children. A ritual of hoeing, of grinding grain, of sampling various other traditional women's tasks symbolized their entry into adulthood. Then the initiates stepped into formation for the formal act making them members of the age-grade group.

All this the anthropologist was invited to see, and he made a photographic record of it all. But one other ceremony he was not allowed to witness.

The heart of this mystery seemed to have to do with a sacred "leopard" who approaches with roars supplied by a friction drum--whose stick is twirled upright between the palms on top of the drum head. Before the "leopard" departed, he left his mark in the form of scratches on the girls' arms, severe enough to need bandaging. It was at this ceremony that the girls were taught the magical properties of native medicine.

Our anthropologist's interpreter made inquiries. Yes, he was told, the visitor might attend. The ceremony would be held the next night at such and such a place.

At nightfall the scientist and his assistant set off by station wagon down a back trail to the designated spot. But no one else appeared. They scouted the neighborhood, listening for the sound of distant drums, but not a thing did they hear.

A second time, a third, they were told when and where the ceremony was to take place. Out they hurried. But there was never anyone there. Finally the anthropologist gave up, for he realized that as a visitor he could go no further. If the people did not want him to see their "mystery" he had no more right to intrude than a visitor to your town would have to demand to attend a private party.

Then one day the anthropologist came upon some small boys playing make-believe with a home-made drum and sticks which they were rolling quite skillfully to produce a roaring sound. Grown-ups soon appeared and scattered the small boys with scolding.

Surely, thought the anthropologist, these boys must have observed the ceremony and were imitating the leopard drum. The ceremony must have taken place just the night before.

True enough, the girls who were being initiated appeared wearing bandages on their arms. The ceremony had indeed taken place. And the mystery of the sacred leopard had been kept safe from foreign eyes.

Soon afterward the anthropologist and his family were repacking their station wagon for the long trek across the continent, back to the port from which they would sail for home. With them they carried new knowledge of the little-known culture patterns of the Sebei. They hoped that this knowledge might help complete the unfinished puzzle which is total understanding of all societies and the universal attributes of human nature which are common to all of us. For this understanding is the goal of anthropology.

THE ONE HUNDRED PERCENT AMERICAN

Despite the average American's pride in things American, some insidious foreign ideas have already wormed their way into his civilization.

Thus dawn finds the unsuspecting patriot garbed in pajamas, a garment of East Indian origin, and lying in a bed built on a pattern which originated in either Persia or Asia Minor. On waking he glances at the clock, a medieval European invention, uses one potent Latin word in abbreviated form, rises in haste, and goes to the bathroom.

Here he must feel himself in the presence of a great American institution--until he remembers that glass was invented by the ancient Egyptians, the use of glazed tiles for floors and walls in the Near East, and porcelain in China. Even his bathtub and toilet are copies of Roman originals. The only purely American contribution is the steam radiator, against which our patriot very briefly places his posterior. In the bathroom the American shaves (a rite developed by the priests of ancient Egypt), washes with soap invented by the ancient Gauls, and dries himself on a Turkish towel.

Returning to the bedroom, the unconscious victim of un-American practices puts on garments whose form derives from the clothing of ancient nomads of the Asiatic steppes, and fastens them with buttons whose prototypes appeared in Europe at the close of the Stone Age. This costume, appropriate enough for outdoor exercise in a cold climate, is quite unsuited to American summers, steam-heated houses, and Pullmans. Nevertheless, foreign ideas and habits hold the unfortunate man in thrall. He puts on his feet stiff coverings made from hide prepared by a process invented in ancient Egypt. Lastly, he ties about his neck a strip of bright-colored cloth which is a vestigial survival of the shoulder shawls worn by 17th century Croats. Then he gives himself a final appraisal in the mirror, an old Mediterranean invention, and goes downstairs to breakfast.

Here his food and drink are placed before him in pottery vessels, the popular name for which--china--betrays their origin. His fork is a medieval Italian invention and his spoon a copy of a Roman original.

If our patriot adheres to the so-called American breakfast, his coffee (descendant of an Abyssinian plant) will be accompanied by an orange, domesticated in the Mediterranean region. He will follow this with a bowl of cereal made from grain domesticated in the Near East. Then he will go on to waffles, a Scandinavian invention, with plenty of butter, originally a Near Eastern cosmetic.

Breakfast over, he places on his head a molded piece of felt, invented by the nomads of Eastern Asia, and sprints for his train--the train, not the sprinting, being an English invention. If it looks like rain, he takes an umbrella, invented in India. At the station he pays for his newspaper with coins invented in ancient Lydia. Once on board the train he settles back to inhale the fumes of a cigarette invented in Mexico, or a cigar invented in Brazil.

Meanwhile our American reads the news of the day, imprinted in characters invented by the Ancient Semites by a process invented in Germany upon a material invented in China. As he scans the latest editorial pointing out the dire result to our institutions of accepting foreign ideas, he will not fail to thank a Hebrew God in an Indo-European language that he is one hundred percent (decimal system invented by the Greeks) American (from Americus Vespucci, Italian geographer).

HOW TO LOOK AT OTHER PEOPLE*

by Colin Turnbull

Do people who live differently from you seem "uncivilized"? Their actions may seem strange, but they are doing the same things you do--in a different way.

You were probably born in a hospital surrounded by doctors and nurses. To protect you from germs, they may have kept you away from your parents for many hours. If you had been born in a primitive tribe in Africa, or South America, or in Southeast Asia, or any place where there are no hospitals, it would have been quite different.

A woman who is about to have a baby in such places works right up to the last moment. Then, without any great fuss, she has her child with the aid of a family member or friend. Within an hour or two she is back at work, with her baby strapped on her back. You would probably think this uncivilized. But she would think it "uncivilized" to be parted from her baby for an instant.

Of course if there is a hospital nearby, it is safer to let the doctors and nurses take care of the baby at first. But what's important in each case is that each mother is interested in the health of her child. She does whatever she can to protect it.

A pygmy woman ties a vine around her baby's waist or wrist. This may seem strange to us, but the pygmy woman would be just as curious about the gauze masks that an American mother and all the others in the hospital room with her wear to shield a newborn baby from germs.

Every mother has the same thing in mind--protection--and every mother does the best she can. The African woman has some medicines made from herbs and roots and plants, and these may help in safeguarding her baby. But against the danger that her baby might die, she seeks help from the supernatural. When a pygmy mother in Africa places a vine around the wrist of her infant, she is placing her newborn under the care of her God, the Forest.

Much of the "magic" that we read of in books about primitive people is really their way of admitting that they don't know all the answers. It's their way of placing themselves under the care of their God.

Certainly there are many differences in the way people do things, and so to us, other people often seem crude and uncivilized. But before we pass judgment on other people, we should try to discover why they do the things that seem so strange to us.

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*From Nature & Science, Volume 2, Number 7, December 21, 1964.
Colin Turnbull has spent several years living with the pygmies of the Congo. He is Assistant Curator of African Ethnology at the American Museum of Natural History.

Marriage and families

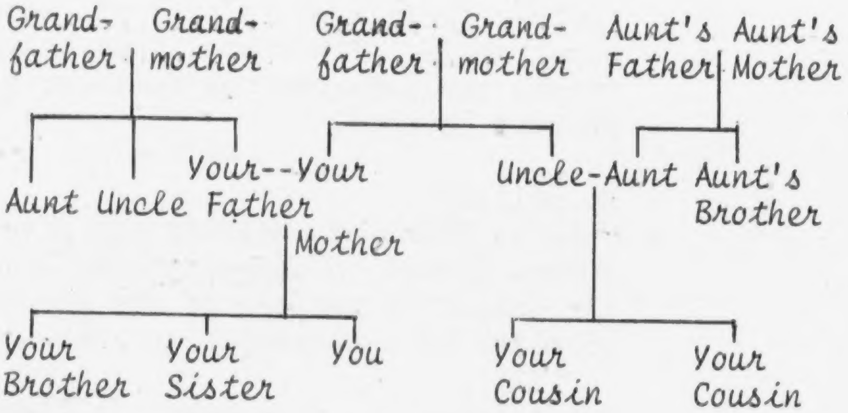
You probably have read about the kings and queens of Europe making political marriages. Thus the King of France might marry the Queen of Austria, whether he knew her before or not. In this way they would link their two countries together. In a sense, any marriage is like this because it links not only two people, but also their families, and often their families' property.

When you're asked about your family, you think first of your parents and your brothers and sisters--those people who live at home with you. But you can stretch out your family a long, long way if you try. Think of your uncles and aunts and cousins; then think of the husbands and wives of your uncles and aunts, and their families. And the farther back you go, through grandparents and great grandparents, the bigger your family becomes.

INVESTIGATION

HOW LARGE IS YOUR FAMILY

Try tracing your relatives this way, writing down their names on a chart like the one shown here. Get your parents to help. To make it clear who are your "blood" relatives and who are "in-laws," you can use a different colored pencil for in-laws. You might think about these terms--blood relatives and in-laws--and why we use them. Count up the number of relatives whom you have seen more than four times in the last year. Did you greet them all the same way? Did you do the same things with them? How many have you never seen at all?



Most Americans don't see any but their closest relatives very often. On the other hand, most Africans are surrounded by relatives all their lives. In an African village or band, most of the poeple are related somehow, and everyone has to cooperate to keep the people fed and clothed. In the forests of the Congo, for instance, all the able men and women will go out to hunt small game for food. The older people have to stay behind to take care of the young children while their parents are gone. Even if they are not directly related to each other, the children will call them "grandmother" or "grandfather." Not only that, but they will all behave and feel as if they were related.

Different names for relatives

The names African people have for their relatives are very important--and often strange. We would think it very odd if someone called his mother's brother "male mother." But this is often done in tribal Africa, just as the father's sister will be called "female father."

After all, everyone in the village or band knows who the real mother and father are. The important thing is to know which members of the family are on the father's side, which are on the mother's side, and to what generation they belong. For in a West African tribe, your mother's brother, like your mother herself, is responsible for your education and upbringing. At the same time, your father's sister, just like your father, has quite different duties. In our society, it doesn't really make any difference if your aunt is your father's sister or your mother's sister--so we use the same name for both.

Here is another example. A common name in Africa for a member of your mother's family is "Person of the Room." The room means the room where you were born, the room of your mother. Just to call someone "Person of the Room" is to ask for all the affection and loyalty you could ask from your real mother.

So we can see that when an African man and woman get married, they are linking together a great number of people into a close-knit family. In fact, the whole tribe thinks of itself as a single family, descended from a single ancestor. Probably most members of African tribes are related to each other in one way or another, although few members of the tribe could trace all the actual relationships. What is important is that they believe themselves to have all come from a common ancestor, and to be the same family. Therefore, they believe that they all have duties to each other, the same way you feel certain duties to your brothers and sisters or your parents.

No police?

When we think of politics and government, we think of the President of the United States, or of senators, or kings, or maybe even policemen. Many of the primitive peoples of the world have no kings or policemen. It is easy to think of such people as backward.

But think of it this way: If there is a quarrel in your family, do you call the police or do you try to settle it among yourselves? Even if a member of your family stole something from you, would you rather settle it between you or in a court of law? Would you feel different if it were a close relative, or a distant relative you hardly ever saw? Even in the United States, where we do have policemen and governors and a president, "family" feelings are important in keeping law and order. In the smaller and simpler tribal societies, like those of Africa, family feelings are the most important of all.

Anthropologists have found that groups of people in different parts of the world live in many different ways. But they have also discovered that these different ways of thinking and acting are simple ways of trying to solve the problems of living that face all members of the Family of Man.

UNIT V

THE GEOGRAPHY OF CULTURE CHANGE

UNIT V - THE GEOGRAPHY OF CULTURE CHANGE
(High School Geography Project)*

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

At the conclusion of the unit the student should be better able to:

1. Discuss how a change in one element of a culture affects and is affected by other culture elements.
2. Suggest some conditions which encourage, as well as some conditions which impede, the spread of customs and ideas.
3. Illustrate the origins of cultural features and how they change during diffusion.
4. Explain how the cultures around the world are becoming more alike.
5. Use data on the distribution of culture traits to delimit the core areas and transition zones of culture regions.
6. Accept the appropriateness of more than one boundary line for a culture region and the likelihood that any such line will change over time.
7. Comment about American culture from the perspective of another culture.
8. Accept culture traits different from his own as natural and proper for the people involved.
9. Locate nations and cultural regions on a map.
10. Recognize relationships among a number of cultural variables on a world scale.

OUTLINE OF CONTENT

This unit is broken down into seven basic parts which are as follows:

1. Operation Bigger Beef

   Students work in teams to find countries which meet a list of criteria. In the process students construct something of a culture region of a part of the world.

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*This unit was taken in entirety from High School Geography Project unit, "The Geography of Culture Change," and may be purchased in classroom sets (30 students, 1 teacher) for $45.00 from High School Geography Project, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

2. Games Illustrating the Spread of Ideas (Optional activity)

   Demonstrates the process by which ideas and information spread from one person to another or from one group to another.

3. A Lesson from Sports

   Illustrates the ideas of cultural diffusion and independent invention by focusing on sports.

4. European Expansion

   This activity examines the spatial pattern of European expansion and the routes by which the whole or parts of the complex of European culture was transferred to regions outside Europe.

5. Canada: A Regional Question

   Develops the idea of cultural regions and the process by which they come into being.

6. Different Ideas about Cattle

   Develops the idea that other cultures are not necessarily ludicrous or backwards.

7. Culture Change: A Trend Toward Uniformity

   Develops the idea that some elements of culture are more receptive to change, and some more resistant.

TEACHING PROCEDURES
(Description of Activities HSGP)

Activity 1 - Operation Bigger Beef

One transparency: "Operation Bigger Beef: Research Areas."

A wall map of the world will help students locate countries whose boundaries will be shown on their working maps but whose names will not be included for lack of space. A grease pencil will be needed to mark the transparency map.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Classify countries that fulfill several conditions for selection.

   For example, given several economic, social and political criteria to be met and relevant data for a number of nations, the student selects the nations that meet the criteria. Or given census data on mean family income, average level of education, and mean value of housing in Chicago, and asked to designate a 20-square block area that would into various aspects of cultural diffusion which they will undertake in the later activities of this Unit.

Their roles in the games, which simulate the flow of cultural influences through a community or a people, reinforce the readings, discussions, and questions. The games are designed also to isolate a few factors which impede the flow of ideas.

The activity is in two parts; the first consists of four games, each of which illustrates in simplified form one aspect of the diffusion of ideas. The second part is a game in which the students take specific roles to show how ideas may spread or be blocked by cultural and geographic influences. Each of the games should give rise to discussion. The two parts require approximately equal time, it is estimated.

The readings begin on page 19 of the Student Resources. Provided in the package for this activity are:

Six transparencies as follows:
  "Population Diagram"
  "No Barrier - Barrier"
  "No Barrier - Blockade"
  "Blockade - Pass Route"
  "Game 1 - Game 2"
  "Simple Game - Complex Game"
One tablet containing "Roles for the Scarf Game" and "Instructions for Innovators"

Not provided are an overhead projector, a grease pencil for marking the transparencies, a cloth for erasing the marks, and a supply of paper towels or newspapers for making the scarves or epaulets called for in the final game of the activity.

It is estimated that two and a half to three days will be needed for "Games Illustrating the Spread of Ideas." The faster the games go, the more effective they will be so long as the students comprehend them. They will go more smoothly if you are familiar ahead of time with the various diagrams, classroom arrangements, and rules. If you plan a guest speaker, as suggested at the end of the Teacher's Guide, be sure to extend an invitation well ahead of time.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Illustrate how ideas spread or diffuse.

   For example, when asked how ideas spread, the student answers that ideas may be transferred either from person to person on an individual basis or through modern systems of mass communication to large groups of people.

2. List the factors that aid or impede the spread of new ideas.

For example, when asked to list general factors that aid the spread of ideas, the student mentions such things as proximity to the source of the idea and lack of physical or cultural barriers. When asked to list particular factors that impede the spread of new ideas, the student mentions such physical factors as large bodies of water or deserts and such social-cultural barriers as language or lack of roads or communication systems.

3. Explain why some ideas are accepted more readily than others.

   For example, the Indians of the southwestern states accepted the idea of the use of the horse from the people of Mexico but resisted the idea of selective horse breeding suggested to them by the early English settlers.

   Given this example and asked to account for the differential resistance to change, the student's answer includes such points as the following: the suggestion for using a horse was a simpler idea; it had more immediate practical value to the Indians.

Activity 3 - A Lesson From Sports

This activity illustrates one of the basic concepts developed in the unit - the concept of cultural diffusion - and is, therefore, integral to the unit. It further illustrates independent invention. This is done by focusing on something of interest to most students - sports. It is estimated that two or possibly three days will be needed.

The activity can be conveniently divided into three parts. The first part is based upon an assigned reading on football and involves a discussion of football as well as other high school team sports. The brief second part of the activity centers on a reading about basketball, accompanied by comprehension questions. The final part of the activity is called a tournament. Students do independent work investigating the origins of United States team sports. In the semi-finals students mingle among themselves exchanging information gained from their research on the origin of sports. The finals of the tournament consist of a test on the main points of the activity.

The student readings begin on page 25 of Student Resources. Other materials for this activity are found on pages 7 to 9 of the Student Manual. There are two separate tablets, "Data Collection Sheets" and "Origins of Sports: Summary Sheet."

Not provided are a wall map of the world which will be useful during the game played in the closing session; a box of paper clips and, if you elect to use it during the game, a referee's whistle or equivalent.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should better be able to:

1. Describe how changing one part of a people's way of life is likely to affect many other parts.

   For example, when asked what America would be like without automobiles, the student traces some of the economic, social, and political implications of such a change.

2. Explain why some aspects of American culture are easily accepted by other cultures while others are not.

   For example, when asked why bottled coke and ball point pens are more easily accepted in many parts of the world than "democracy" and capitalism, he mentions the greater complexity of the latter elements and their disruptiveness for the culture involved.

3. Describe many aspects of American culture that are borrowed, especially from Europe, and are not native inventions.

   For example, when asked whether a list of American customs were borrowed from Europe or developed here in the United States, he identifies the origins of several and guesses that more of those remaining were probably borrowed than were developed here.

4. Accept disagreement among authorities.

   For example, when asked whether he would expect several texts to agree on the origin of a number of customs, he answers "probably not."

5. Discuss reasons why some customs or ideas are passed from one culture to another while others are not.

   For example, when asked why basketball has been widely diffused while American football has not, the student considers such factors as the level of resistance to innovation, the persuasiveness of the innovator, the complexity of the innovation, the number of contacts, and the need of the recipients for a football type of game compared to a basketball type.

Activity 4 - European Expansion

This activity is considered integral to the Unit. It should take two days of class time.

In the previous activity the class studied one cultural element, sports, which the United States received mainly from Europe. This activity examines the spatial pattern of European expansion and the routes by which the whole or parts of the complex of European culture were transferred to regions outside Europe.

The activity focuses upon the most significant example of cultural diffusion in the last 500 years: European overseas expansion. Europeans traveled to many parts of the globe taking over and transforming the land, gaining political control (even if only temporarily), and often destroying or altering indigenous cultures, substituting their own.

Your class will examine the physical and cultural barriers to such expansion. A hypothetical expansion is contrasted with the actual European expansion in order to bring out the importance of certain major factors which operated in the real situation.

The first part of the activity introduces the source, Europe, by designating the countries which compose it and briefly mentioning some of the major cultural elements of the region. The second part of the activity sets up a hypothetical model of the diffusion of European culture via land routes only. The third part studies the actual routes of diffusion--sea routes--and contrasts them with the hypothetical land routes.

The entire activity is based on discussion illustrated by transparencies. The students perform a limited amount of map work which should help them in setting up the hypothesis and in contrasting the real situation with this hypothesis.

The students' materials are all found in the Student Manual.

The following transparency is included:
European Culture Region, 1500 A.D.
Overlay 1: "Hypothetical Expansion of European Settlement by Land, 1500 A.D. - 2100 A.D."
Overlay 2: "Major European Migrational Streams"
Overlay 3: "Europeanized Regions"
Overlay 4: "Non-European Rule for a Time"
Overlay 5: "Non-European Cultures Never Under European Rule"

Not provided are: a grease pencil, a cloth or kleenex for erasing, a wall map of Europe, and a wall map of the world.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Describe some of the major characteristics of European culture.

   For example, when asked what would be expected in a European culture, the student mentions such things as Christianity, industrial development, urban-centered living, and democratic political institutions.

2. Identify three major world regions in terms of the influence of European culture upon them.

   For example, given a map of the world and asked to trace the major European culture, areas of former European control, and areas of no former European control, the student does so.

3. Trace the major migrational streams by which European culture spread around the world.

   For example, given a map of the world and asked to trace in the major migrational streams, the student shows arrows from Western Europe to the Americas, South Africa, and Australia, and from Eastern Europe across Siberia.

4. Explain patterns that appear when the diffusion of cultural elements is mapped.

   For example, when asked to explain why European culture spread where it did, the student mentions such things as transportation technology in relation to natural barriers and the ability of some cultures to resist.

Activity 5 - Canada: A Regional Question

This activity develops the idea of culture regions and the process by which they come into being. It illustrates the point by reference to southeastern Canada, a part of the world affected by two elements of European culture, the British and French. Both were major influences in the General expansion of European culture studied in the previous acitvity.

Activity 5 consists of five parts, the first of which is optional. There is also an optional showing of a film, "Canada - Unity or Division?", which relates principally to the concluding exercise.

The first part, which may be omitted if you think your class already understands it, is a review of the ideas of cultural diffusion. The second is a detailed examination of the area to be studied. The third introduces the class to place names as a cultural trait. The fourth is a demonstration of regional core areas and transition zones within which certain cultural traits can be found. These three are of roughly equal length, but the fifth part needs more time. It was designed as an exercise, probably taking two days, to identify regions and transition zones by associating several culture traits. Map work as well as questions and discussions are involved in this last.

A brief reading to provide background for this work begins on page 29 of the Student Resources, which contains maps that give data the class will need. Also provided are:

Three transparencies as follows:
- "Population Distribution - Canada" with two overlays.
- "Southeastern Canada"
- "Movements of French Canadians: 1881-1961" with one overlay.

One tablet of tracing paper maps of Southeastern Canada

Not provided are an overhead projector for the transparencies, an opaque projector for showing student work, and colored pencils needed by students to mark their tracing paper maps. If you wish to use the film, you will of course need a projector. The film should be ordered well in advance from the film library your school uses. "Canada - Unity or Division?" is produced by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., No. 2400 for color and No. 2401 for black and white. It is described in more detail on page 72 of the guide.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Explain what culture regions are.

   For example, when asked to explain the sense in which a particular ethnic neighborhood in his town could be considered a culture region, he explains that the people of that area have characteristics, traditions, and values that distinguish them to some degree from the people of other neighborhoods.

2. Draw boundaries for a single or multi-trait culture region based on the association of one or more cultural indicators.

   For example, when given mapped data on the ethnic origin, race, and religious preference of the poeple of a pre-dominantly Japanese neighborhood in his city and asked to designate the streets that would be the neighborhood's most likely limits, the student determines the boundary.

3. Discuss the tendency of cultural boundaries to change over time.

   For example, when asked if the boundaries of a culture region such as a local Chinatown are likely to remain stable, he replies in the negative and cites the increasing mobility of people.

4. Accept more than one boundary line as reasonable, given data on several cultural traits.

   For example, when asked to evaluate several proposed boundaries of a culture region, the student regards more than one as an acceptable boundary.

Activity 6 - Different Ideas About Cattle

In this activity, students move beyond working with culture regions and competing cultures--the crux of their work in Activity 5--to deeper inquiry into cultural variety. It is hoped that a series of slides, readings, and discussions will lead them to understand that other cultures are not necessarily ludicrous or backward. Discovering that customs and attitudes very different from ours often are thoroughly reasonable in their own settings, students are drawn to an appreciation and acceptance of differences between peoples.

Cattle and the various attitudes which men have about them are the example chosen. The activity falls into four parts: a discussion of American views about cattle, a presentation of other attitudes, a discussion of the cultural settings in which these attitudes have developed, and a summary leading to a concept of how various elements relate to each other within and between cultures. The four parts are roughly equal length.

It is estimated that the activity will take two or three teaching days, one time factor being whether or not you assign as homework the readings beginning on page 37 of Student Resources, "What's a Cow to the Nuer of Africa?" and "Cattle in India."

Twenty-one colored slides are provided. Those numbered 1, 15, and 20 are copyrighted by the National Geographic Society which has made them available to the High School Geography Project. All the slides are roughly contemporary except where indicated in the text. Not provided is a projector for the slides. We suggest that you review the slides in advance; it may be difficult to read the descriptions during projection.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Describe some of the varied uses of cattle throughout the world.

   For example, when asked to describe uses of cattle, he mentions such things as food and clothing, work, recreation, heat, and religious symbolism.

2. Discuss the interrelatedness of culture elements.

   For example, when asked to explain why it might not be worthwhile to provide tractors for primitive farmers, he mentions such things as the need to know how to run them, the availability of repair services and fuel, and the suitability of tractors for the size of farms or their terrain.

3. Distinguish customs rooted in inadequate economic conditions from those that are cultural preferences.

   For example, when presented with a list of customs and asked which ones are likely to change considerably as economic conditions improve, he identifies these and indicates others which seem to be rooted in cultural preferences.

4. Predict instances when proposed cultural changes are likely to meet strong resistance.

   For example, when asked to indicate which of several cultural changes are likely to meet the most resistance, he decides in terms of the complexity of the change and how deep-rooted are the cultural elements that will be affected.

5. Discuss unusual customs in terms of how natural and proper they may seem to be to the people who practice them.

   For example, when an unusual custom of another culture is described, the student responds in terms of the functions it may serve in its own setting rather than by deriding it as senseless.

6. Disucss elements of American culture from the perspective of another culture.

   For example, when asked what parts of American culture would be most unusual to a Nuer or a Hindu, the student comments on American practices most markedly different from those cultures.

Activity 7 - Culture Change: A Trend Toward Uniformity

This seventh and final activity of the Culture Unit is concerned with the accelerating rate of diffusion or exchange of ideas, and the resulting trend toward uniformity. It is considered to be integral to the unit. The idea that some elements of culture are more receptive to change, and some more resisitant is developed. Elements of the urban landscape are examined in light of this idea, and central business districts are seen to be very similar the world over, while religious buildings and private dwellings retain regional characteristics. Some of the reasons for this differential resistance to change are explored.

There are three major parts to this two-day activity. The first part revolves around a set of slides of traditional buildings in various parts of the world, which students try to locate regionally in the light of cultural clues. The second part is developed around a set of slides of downtown sections of modern cities, which students also try to locate regionally. Student discussion is a part of both days' work. The last part requires that students write an essay about the changes cities are undergoing as the world gets smaller because of improvements in transportation and communication. The rapid and relatively free flow of ideas is a vital factor underlying culture change in the world today.

Two optional readings are provided that amplify the strong role of tradition in giving cities in two cultures, the Chinese and Muslim, their distinctive characteristics.

The optional readings for students begin on page 41 of Student Resources. Worksheets to accompany the slide viewing are in the Student Manual starting on page 14. Other materials that are provided include:

Nine slides of traditional style city buildings

51. Bangkok, Thailand
52. Bruges, Belgium
53. Toledo, Spain
54. A city in Chad
55. York, England
56. San'a', Yemen
67. St. Louis, United States
58. Kano, Nigeria
59. Yakutsk, U.S.S.R.

Seven slides of downtown sections of modern cities

60. Tokyo, Japan
61. Sao Paulo, Brazil
62. Ulan Bator, Mongolia
63. Boston, United States
64. Kinshasa, Congo
65. Cairo, Egypt
66. Suburb of london, England

Forty outline maps.

Materials needed but not provided include:

Slide projector
Wall map of the world

Slides 51, 52, 55, 56, 58, 59, 61, 62, and 66 are copyrighted by the National Geographic Society which has made them available to the High School Geography Project.

Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of the activity the student should be better able to:

1. Discuss the ways in which different cultures are becoming more similar.

   For example, when asked if and how cultures are becoming more alike, the student answers in the affirmative and cites western commercial-industrial practices as the direction of increasing similarity.

2. Explain the increasing similarity in some economic aspects of culture at least partly in terms of decreasing time, distance from place to place.

   For example, when asked to explain why cultures are becoming more alike, he mentions increases in the speed of communication and transportation, as well as the increase in the number of people involved in cross-cultural travel.

3. Discuss the aspects of a culture that are least subject to rapid change.

   For example, when asked which aspects of a culture are most likely to resist change, he mentions religion and family customs.

UNIT VI

THEMATIC UNIT - HUNGER

UNIT VI - THEMATIC UNIT - HUNGER

I. Generalization

A. Hunger is the result of complex cultural, political, social, economic, environmental, technological and demographic causes.

B. Hunger is not an easy problem to solve and progress toward solving this problem can only be made by identifying the problem, causes and developing a sensitivity in man to hunger and a willingness to work to eliminate it.

II. Skills and abilities

A. Comprehension of geographic and anthropological materials.

1. The ability to interpret obvious types of data.
2. The ability to extend ideas beyond given information in order to determine implications, consequences, corollaries, effects, etc.

B. The ability to synthesize social studies material to form a coherent whole.

1. The ability to propose a plan to solve a problem.
2. The ability to make generalizations based on specific materials.

III. Affective objectives

A. Develop a sensitivity to the situation of others.

B. Develop a willingness to respond in a positive manner to the situation of others.

C. Develop a student commitment to active participation in trying to solve the social, economic and political problems of our time.

D. Develop an empathy for mankind.

IV. Outline of content

A. Hunger is a result of many complex origins among which are:

1. Cultural - A case study of hunger in India due to religious refusal to eat meat.

2. Political - A case study of hunger in oil-rich Arab countries where wealth doesn't reach the masses because of the political structure.

3. Social - A case study of black people in the United States where hunger results because of social discrimination.

4. Economic - A case study of Chile to show where hunger results from economic decisions in the wrong direction.

THE WORLD IS A TOWN

One of the most difficult things to do is to get a clear mental picture of yourself and your place in the world. And this is what frequently leads to misunderstanding. Dr. Henry Smith Leiper, has given us a wonderful picture of the world by reducing proportionately all the people of the world into a theoretical town of 1,000 people. He tells us it would look something like this:

In this town, there would be 60 Americans; the remainder of the world would be represented by 940 persons. This is the proportion of the United States to the population of the world...60 to 940. The 60 Americans would have half the income of the entire town, with the other 940 dividing the other half. About 330 people in the town would be classified as Christians; 670 would not. Fewer than 100 would be Protestant Christians, and some would be Roman Catholics. At least 90 townspeople would be practicing Communists, and 370 others would be under Communist domination. White people would total 303, with 697 non-white. Half of the 1,000 people would never have heard of Jesus Christ or what he taught. On the other hand, more than half would be hearing about Karl Marx, Lenin, Stalin, and Khruschev.

The 60 Americans would have an average life expectancy of 70 years; and the other 940, less than 40 years on the average. The 60 Americans would have an average of 15 times as many possessions per person as all the rest of the people. The Americans would produce 16% of the town's total food supply. Although they eat 72% above the maximum food requirements, they would either eat most of what they grew, or store it for their own future use at enormous cost. Since most of the 940 non-Americans in this town would be hungry most of the time, it could lead to some ill feeling toward the 60 Americans, who would appear to be enormously rich and fed to the point of sheer disbelief by the great majority of the townspeople. The American would also have a disproportionate share of electric power, coal, fuel, steel, and general equipment.

The Americans and about 200 others representing Western Europe and a few favored classes in other areas in South America, South Africa, Australia and a few wealthy Japanese, would be relatively well off. But the majority of the 1,000 people would be ignorant, poor, hungry, and sick. The American families would be spending at least $850.00 a year for military defense, but less than $4.00 a year to share their religious faiths with the other people in the community. Many of the 60 Americans wouldn't even have brains enough to be thankful for the privilege of being American. Quite a few would pass up an education, even though hundreds of others in town would give anything to obtain it.

APPENDIX

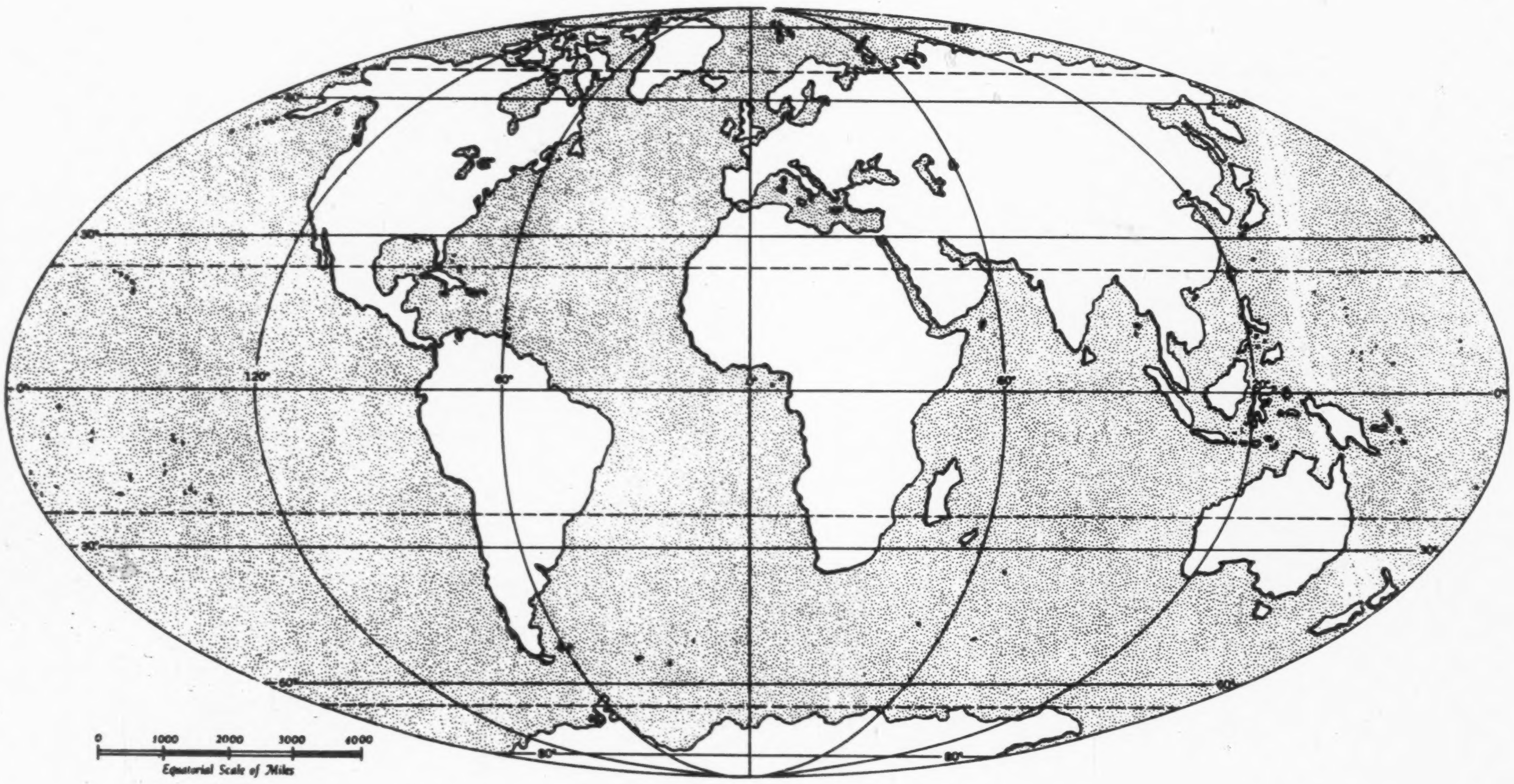

60°
30°
0°
30°
60°
80°
120°
60°
0°
60°
0
1000
2000
3000
4000
Equatorial Scale of Miles

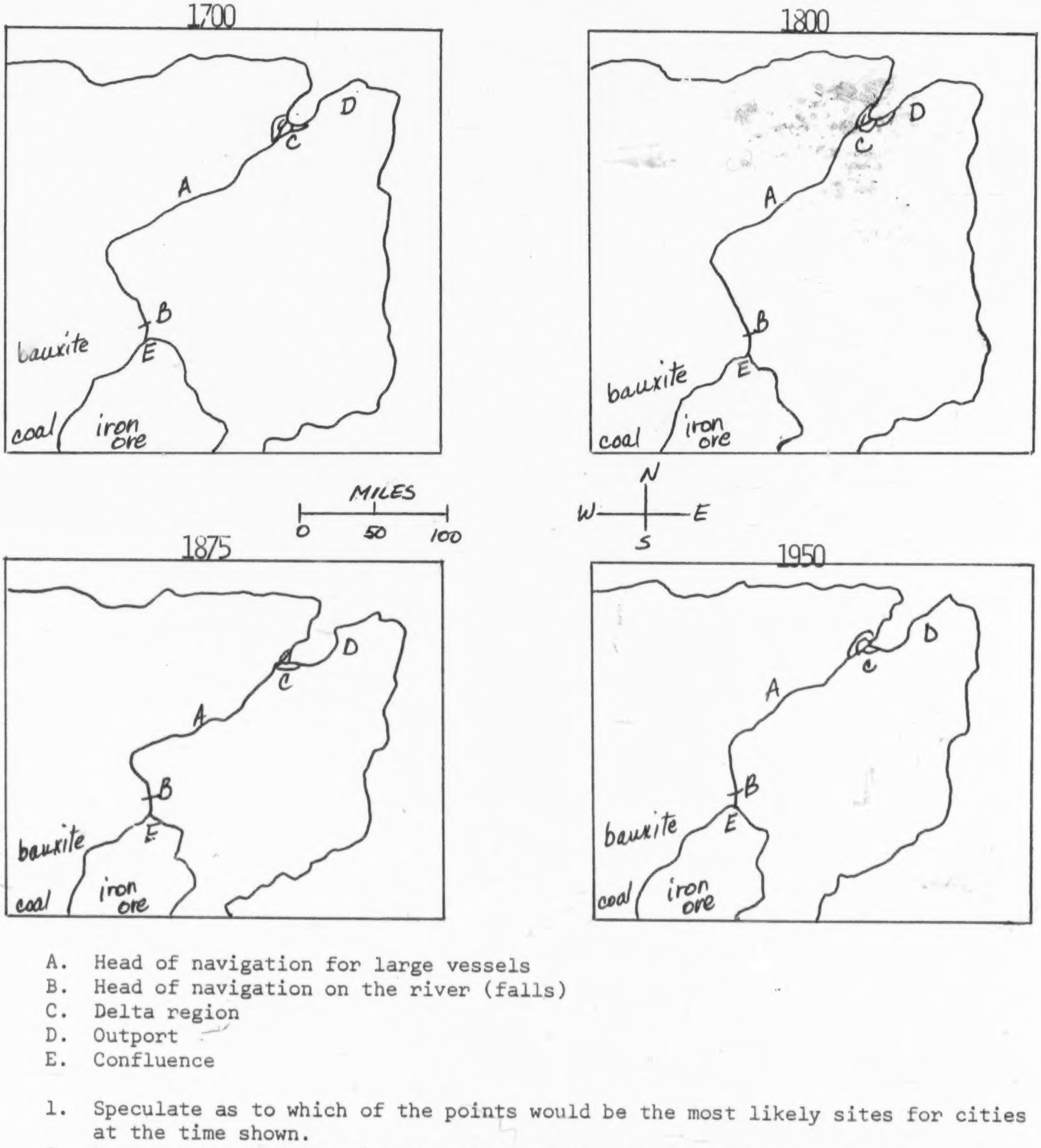
Figure 14. The World.

Taken from workbook for Our World and Its Peoples by Edward R. Kolvezon and John A. Heine.

For possible use with Units I, II, or III

Location on Rivers

RIVER SETTLEMENTS



A. Head of navigation for large vessels
B. Head of navigation on the river (falls)
C. Delta region
D. Outport
E. Confluence

1. Speculate as to which of the points would be the most likely sites for cities at the time shown.
2. Can you form a generalization about settlement sites along rivers and river systems? (First settlement (protection-proximity to ocean), sites of river barriers (falls and rapids), confluence of rivers, hinterland of fertile valley.)
3. When would the minerals shown be looked upon as natural resources?

Possible use in Units I and II

NEWS ITEM

"The need for a new canal is growing desperate. In the 50 years since U.S. Army engineers carved the present seaway out of the Panamanian jungle, the canal has proved one of the wonders of the world. Today some 50% of Japan's exports to the West pass through the canal; such nations as Ecuador, Peru, and Chile depend on it for between 75% and 90% of their total imports and exports. But ships have slowly outgrown the intricate network of three lock systems that carry them across the hump of the isthmus, and trade is expanding far beyond the canal's capacity to handle it. Over the last ten years, commercial traffic has climbed from 36 million tons annually to almost 65 million tons. Today, some ships lie to for 15 hours or more awaiting their turn. The biggest tankers and aircraft carriers cannot squeeze through at all. With the trend to bigger and bigger ships, the canal will be obsolete altogether by the year 2000.

"President Johnson mentioned four possible sites - all of them publicly discussed on earlier occasions - for a sea-level canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific without need of locks. One is a 95-mile route in northwest Colombia, another a 168-mile route slicing through Costa Rica and Nicaragua; the remaining two are in Panama itself - running 60 miles through the southern Darien wilderness and the other, the present 51-mile waterway, which would need considerable widening and deepening to eliminate the locks. Johnson gave no hint as to which route the U.S. preferred, saying only, 'I have asked the Secretary of State to begin discussions immediately with all the governments concerned.'"

(Time, December 25, 1964, p. 16.)

DIRECTIONS:

1. Divide the class into committees. Each group would be assigned one possible site for the new canal, i.e., Colombia, Nicaragua-Costa Rica and Panama. The committee should evaluate thoroughly the physical advantages and disadvantages of each site and present them to the class. (Some students may be inclined to make hasty judgements because one route would be shorter, or pass through relatively level country, or include a desirable lake, etc.)

2. The committees should also include in their investigation the nonphysical factors that could affect the selection of a new canal site. (Recent riots in Panama, present political status within the country, etc.)

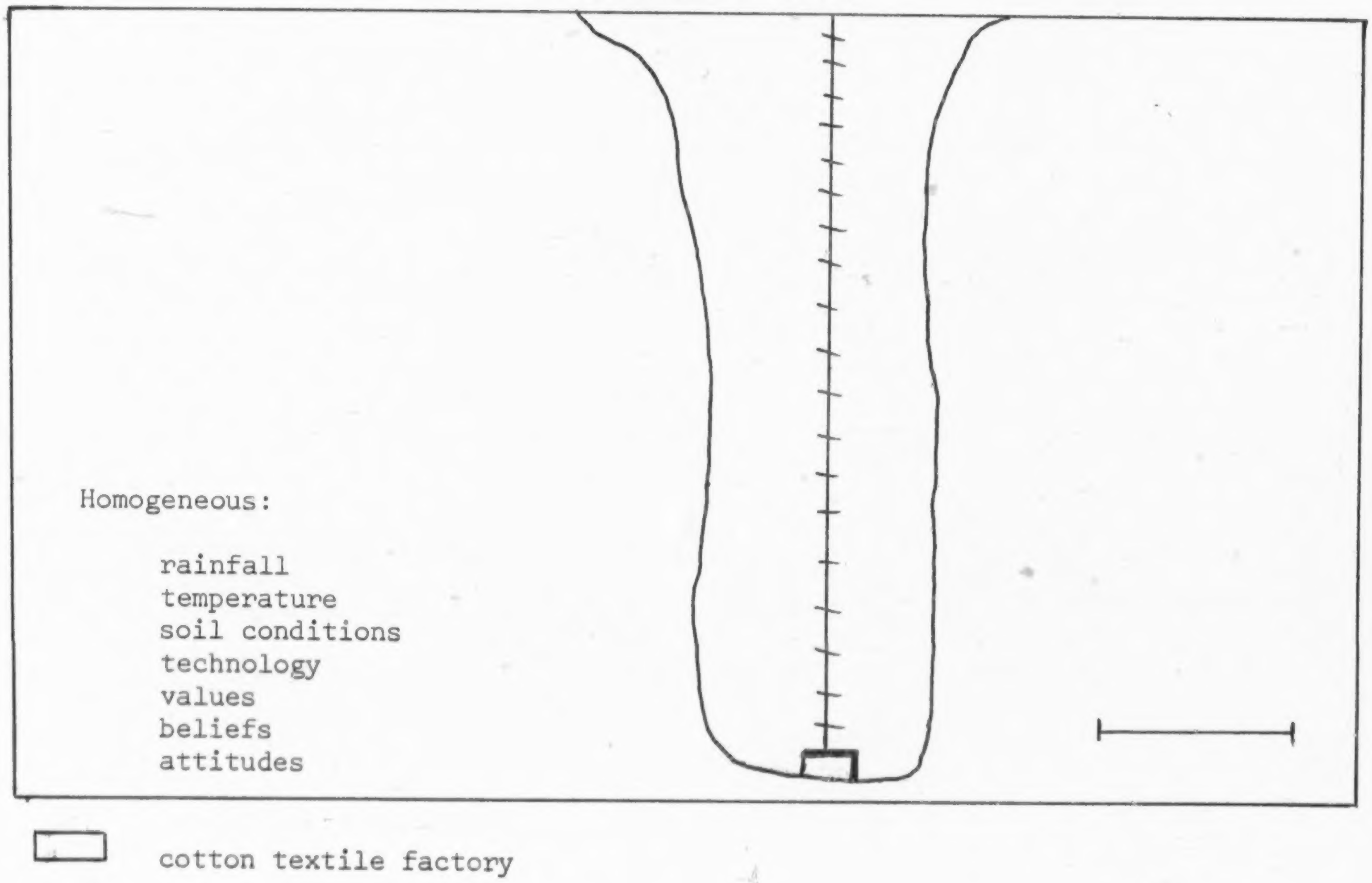
   Which country is most likely to be sympathetic to such arrangements? Should the U.S. "go it alone" or attempt to include other countries in the planning and construction of a new canal? What effect would the economics of a two-billion dollar project be likely to have on a country's attitude toward the canal? How important a factor is the internal political stability of a country across which we may plan to build a canal? Is adequate manpower available or would American workers have to be recruited in inefficiently large numbers?

   (While no firm decision is likely to be made, the class should begin to realize that a variety of factors will and should affect our government's ultimate choice of a site for an improved canal.)

(Broek, Jan O.M., Geography, Its Scope and Spirit, Charles E. Merrill Social Science Seminar Series, Sept. 1966)

For possible use with Unit II (Large group, small group, IS)

RATTERSAT
(A HOMOGENEOUS PLACE)


Homogeneous:
rainfall
temperature
soil conditions
technology
values
beliefs
attitudes
cotton textile factory

The soil and climate in Rattersat is ideal for the growing of cotton which will then be sold to the textile factory at the south end of the railroad. This plant's sole source of raw cotton is the farms of Rattersat. The maximum amount the factory can pay for the raw cotton is $5.00 a bale. The railroad charges $1.00 to ship a bale of cotton 50 miles. The farmer's cost of raising a bale of cotton is $2.50.

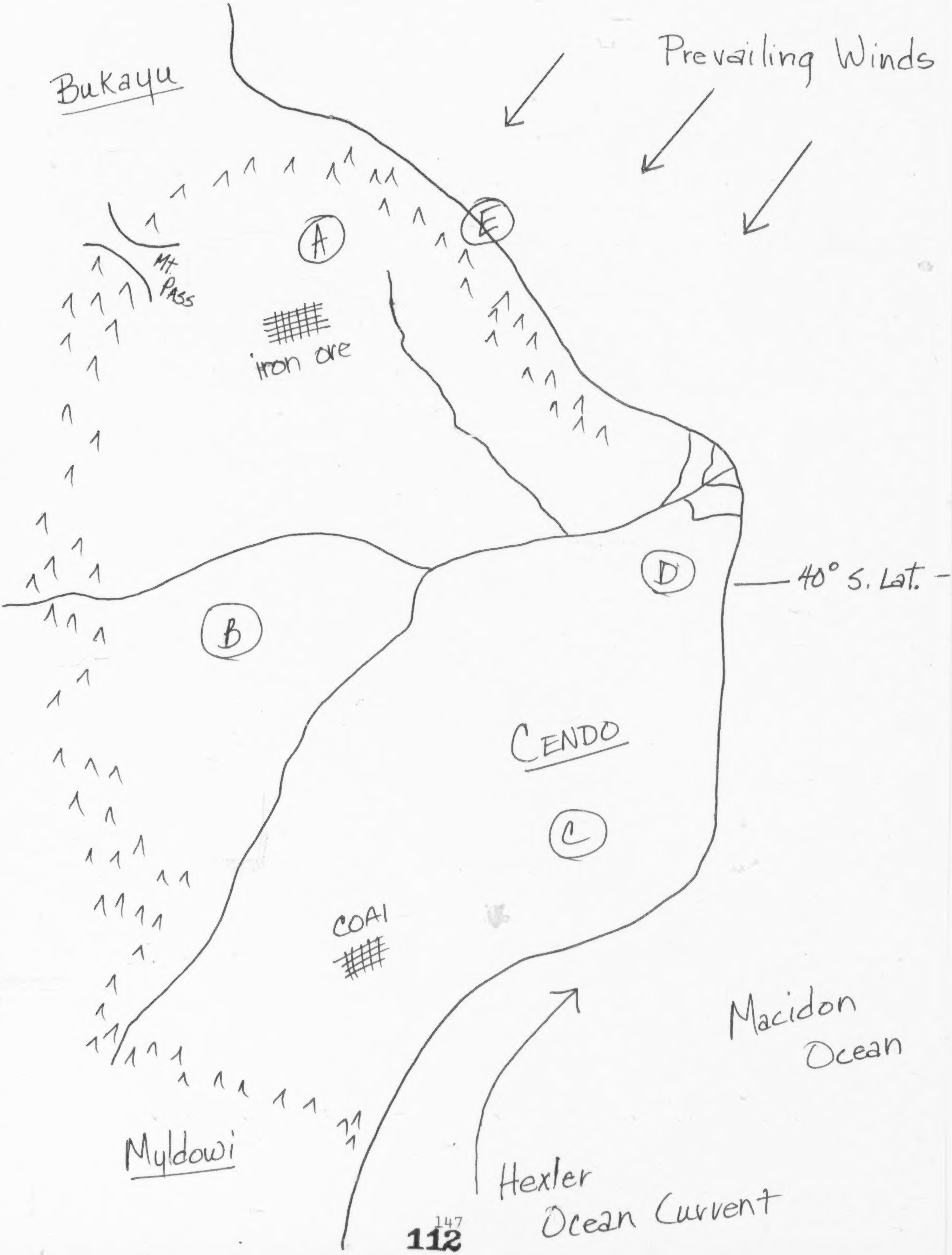
1. Speculate about the possible ways the farmers might use their land.
2. If the following conditions of our model country changed, what effect might the change have on the land-use pattern of Rattersat?
    a. If transportation costs were to go up $1.00 per bale per 50 miles?
    b. If the factory lowers its price to $3.00 per bale?
    c. If a cheaper method of transportation were introduced?
    d. If the demand for cotton went down and the factory closed its doors?

(Broek, Jan O.M., Geography, Its Scope and Spirit, Charles E. Merrill Social Science Seminar, 1966.)

Possible use with Units II or III (Small group or IS)

CENDO

1. Identify the probable climate types in each area and tell why.
2. Identify the natural strength of the transportation system. If railroads were to be built, where would you build them?
3. Where would be the best place for the capitol?
4. Where would you expect the population centers to be? (site - situation - hinterland)
5. What type of industry would you develop in Cendo? Where would be the best place to locate the steel mill?
6. Where and what types of crops could be grown in Cendo?
7. Would the Hexler ocean current be cold or warm? Why?


Bukayu
Prevailing Winds
E
A
Mt. Pass
iron ore
D
40° S. Lat.
B
CENDO
C
COAl
Macidon Ocean
Myldowi
Hexler Ocean Current

Possible activity for Unit III (IS)

GEOGRAPHY 8

Dnal is a country about the size of our state. It is a peninsula bounded by the Retaw Sea on the west, south, and east, and the Skaep Mountains on the north. No spot on the peninsula is more than fifty miles from the sea. The Retaw Sea, connected with the Tlas Ocean by the Strait of Tew, is quite large and very deep in most places. The Strait of Tew is from three to six miles wide and several hundred feet deep. Many kinds of fish live in the Retaw. There are six mountains in the Skaep Range, from 5,800 feet to 10,500 feet in height. The mountains are snow-covered during the winter months. There are five chief rivers in Dnal that come down from the mountains and flow into the sea. Dnal also has a group of deep lakes in the north, a few waterfalls, and some swift-moving streams. During the late fall and early spring, there is usually rather steady precipitation throughout Dnal. For a month or so during the summer, Dnal can be quite dry. Most of Dnal is sunny and warm a lot of the time. Parts of northern Dnal are hilly and even rocky. There is also a section of grassland in the north. The Yellav Valley in central Dnal is several miles wide and many miles long and has unusually rich, fertile soil. Southern Dnal has some fertile spots; a few low, forest-covered rolling hills; and many flat, sandy beaches along the shoreline. Some natural gas, coal, and petroleum deposits may be found in Dnal. A high grade of marble has been discovered in a few places. There is some zinc, lead, copper, chromite, and iron.

Instructions: Given the above information about this imaginary country, construct a map of the country showing the physical features as given above.

(Taken from Geography, Its Scope and Spirit by Jan O.M. Broek.)

For use with Unit IV (Tapes should be made)

ETHNOCENTRISM: The way man perceives his experiences is strongly influenced by his cultural heritage, and he tends to view his own way of life as the most reasonable and natural.

KIM looked down the barrel of his rifle and squeezed off a shot at an advancing policeman. He grabbed a stick of dynamite, waving it in full view of the surrounding policemen, warning them not to advance a step further.

Kim looked back at his fifteen hostages and saw fear in their eyes. This pleased him as he knew the police would never rush the hotel as long as he held his fifteen captives.

His mind wandered for a moment, reflecting on his accomplishment. This was his fourth day of holding off the Japanese police. He had kidnapped these fifteen people to publicize the discrimination of the Japanese people against the Koreans living in Japan. Kim's heart beat rapidly as he thought of the wonderful success of his plan.

He had demanded and got three press conferences in the last four days. News of his rebellion was known the length and breadth of Japan. Kim had explained to the reporters that he was born in Japan and has lived his whole life there. However, he is still a Korean in Japanese eyes, and, like the rest of the nation's colony of some 600,000 Koreans, he is the subject of at least as much, and possible more, discrimination than that imposed upon Negroes in the United States.

Kim explained to the reporters that Koreans made up 90% of all aliens in Japan, and for most of them social and economic opportunities have changed little since they first began arriving after Japan conquered Korea in 1904. Furthermore, during World War II, many thousands of Koreans were brought forcibly to Japan to work in mines and war plants, virtually as slave laborers. Many were sent throughout the Pacific in construction battalions. Though well over a million Koreans returned to their homeland at the end of the war, many thousands of others had by then already cut their roots with Korea. They elected to stay in Japan, but ever since, they have faced a desperate struggle to escape the classification of second-class citizens.

Kim had made little progress in impressing the reporters until he explained that few, if any Koreans, hold jobs with the government or top industrial firms. The vast majority of them live in Korean ghettos and, like himself, either gravitate to the underworld or eke out a living as best they can at the bottom of the economic ladder. Kim explained that the crime rate among Koreans is four times higher than for the rest of Japan and that private schools and universities are not legally bound to accept Koreans, and many refuse to.

Kim accused the majority of the Japanese population of persisting in their old feeling of superiority over their one-time subjects, and regard them as naturally inferior, shiftless and inevitably inclined to lives of crime and immorality. He explained that those few Koreans who have managed to achieve prosperity have done so only in the fields of entertainment and sports.

Kim had learned in school that the Japanese and Koreans were descendents of the Chinese. The peninsula of Korea had been used as a bridge for the migration of Chinese peoples to the Japanese islands. Those that stayed on the peninsula were the Koreans and those that continued on became the Japanese. They were essentially brothers and even looked alike. Why, he wondered, should the Japanese look down on us when the only difference between us was our last names. Kim told the reporters he had often been called "you damned Korean" in his childhood.

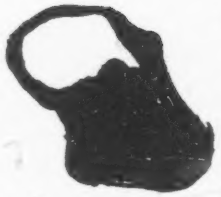
Kim swung the massive oak door open and greeted the reporters. The reporters nodded and smiled in return. Kim leaned his rifle against the door and prepared to talk to the reporters. Suddenly the men rushed and knocked him to the floor. Kim made a desperate grab for his rifle but he was held securely by three large men. He had been tricked! These men were the police disguised as reporters. Kim savagely tried to bite his tongue off to rob his captors of their catch. This he could not do and he realized that this was the end of his freedom, and possibly, his life. As he was dragged off, he hoped his miserable life had produced some hope for his people.

DISCUSS QUESTIONS

1. What are the similarities between the Japanese and Koreans?
2. How are the Koreans treated in Japan?
3. Why do the Japanese discriminate against the Koreans?
4. How does this discrimination effect the opportunities of Koreans in Japan?
5. Are there any similarities between the opportunities offered the Koreans in Japan and the opportunities offered other minority groups throughout the world?
6. List some reasons why people discriminate against others in the world. Are any of these reasons valid? Which are most common?

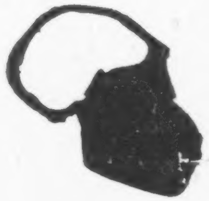
Could be used in Unit IV
introduce Physical Anthr

MAN ADVANCES BY LEARNING TO USE HIS HANDS . . . AND HIS HEAD



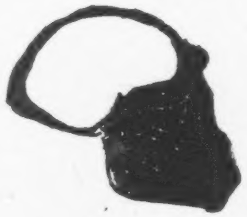
An Upright Man-Ape

The first creature to stand upright and use tools probably lived three or four million years ago during Pliocene epoch. Remains of this manlike primate have not yet been found, but his skull may have resembled a modern ape's (left). Note the small brain cavity, high brow-ridge, and the flat nose and large jaw. The manlike primate used his hands for fighting, picking fruit, and hurling rocks. Perhaps his best tool was a heavy branch-club, right.



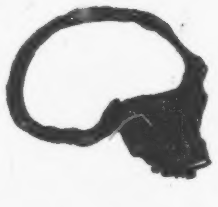
An Ape Man Who Hunted

Zinj belonged to a group of South African ape men called Australopithecus. They lived during the Lower Paleolithic period as early as two million years ago. The brain of this ape man was slightly larger than that of the ape, but his jawbone was smaller. He held his head erect, and possibly he had the power of speech. Hi tools were pebbles (the front and back sides of two are at right) which he used to kill and skin small animals Some ape men were less than 5 feet tall; others weighed up to 150 pounds and stood as tall as full-sized men.



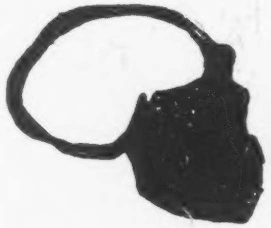
A Man Who Could Cook

About 700,000 years ago, in the second half of the Lower Paleolithic period, the first true man appeared. The skull shown here is that of Peking man, a fossilized skeleton found in a Chinese cave. His brain was twic as large as that of the ape, and his cranium was higher and more rounded. A typical tool was a crude chopper (at right) that was well suited for working hides. There is evidence that Peking man could preserve and use fire. He soon learned how to cook meat and keep his family warm in the winter months.



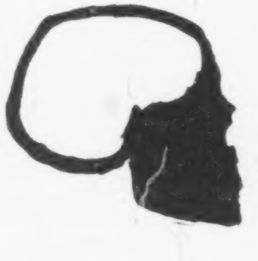
A Man With New Weapons

The first evidence of true man discovered in Europe was Steinheim man and his contemporary, Swanscombe ma They lived 250,000 years ago and were very much like men today, although their bones were thicker. The whole Steinheim skull was not found (the jaw was missing), but the brain size can be estimated from the cranium, which is little larger than Peking man's. He had the sense to construct a good hand axe and other weapons for hunting large animals.



A Man Who Made Better Tools

Neanderthal man is not considered our direct ancestor; he had special characteristics not found in modern man. His physique was adjusted to the severe climate of the glacial period. He had a big head with correspond ingly large brain, face, and nose. He was heavy and muscular but stood only 5 feet 4 inches tall. The earlier Neanderthals of 90,000 years ago used the large Mousterian scraper and saw-tooth points (right) to chop up their bear meat and other food. Neanderthal man disappeared about 40,000 years ago.



A Man Who Could Paint

Upper Paleolithic man followed the Neanderthals into Europe. The newcomer lived from 30,000 to 10,000 years ago. He was almost like us; slightly shorter but with a lean and slender body. His skull and brain were of moderate size, and his facial features were no different from ours. He was quite a talented artist and craftsman who was capable of abstract conception. Among his specialized tools was a flint with one razor-like edge and one blunted edge (right). This ingenious tool, known as a backed blade, evolved into the modern knife.

Taken from The Search for Early Man by John E. Pfeiffer (New York: American Heritage Publishing Company, Inc., 1963).

HIS HANDS . . . AND HIS HEAD

Could be used in Unit IV to
introduce Physical Anthropology

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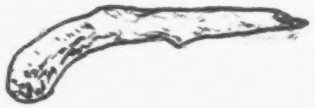

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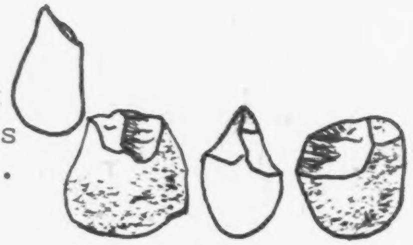

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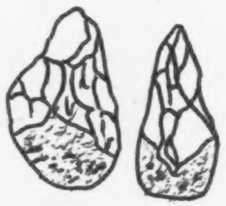

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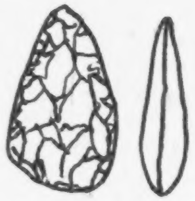

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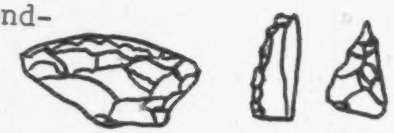

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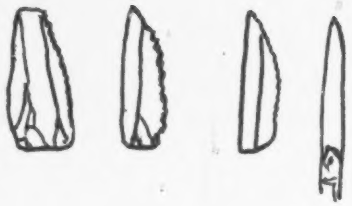

eiffer (New York: American Heritage Publishing Company, For possible use with Unit IV

IN SEARCH OF THE FIRST MAN

by Diane Sherman

A newcomer to the family tree may be the father of us all.

Deep in a canyon in east Africa, in 1962, Dr. Louis Leakey and his wife, Mary, made one of the most exciting discoveries in the history of man's search for his earliest ancestors. They found fossil bones of a man-like creature that appears to have lived nearly two million years ago. Dr. Leakey has named the creature Homo Habilis, which means "man able to do things." Was he the first man?

The Leakeys are both anthropologists (scientists who study man). They dug the remains of Homo Habilis out from what must have been the floor of a campsite. There were simple tools scattered about, and heaps of bones of catfish and small animals that Homo Habilis may have eaten. In spots, Dr. Leakey and his wife found stones piled together in what seem to have been the foundations for very simple huts or windbreaks.

They found parts of the skeletons of five different people, including a woman and a child. But there were enough of these fragments to tell a good deal about Homo Habilis. From the leg bones, scientists can tell that he walked upright and that he was only four feet high. In certain ways, his skull was shaped very much like ours, and his feet - like ours - had parallel toes.

Homo Habilis was very old. Was he the earliest man?

Early Man or Russian Soldier?

People have been looking for the earliest man since Charles Darwin, the great English naturalist, published a book titled "The Origin of Species" in 1859. In that book, he explained the theory of evolution and suggested that men had developed a long time ago from ape-like creatures. But three years before, in 1856, workmen digging out a cave in the Neanderthal valley of Germany had found some most peculiar fossils. They seemed to be the bones of a man, but what a strange man! He couldn't have had much of a forehead, because the top of his skull was low. There were heavy ridges across his brow and all his bones were very thick.

People were not sure what to make of Neanderthal man. One scientist at that time thought he must have been a Russian soldier who had gotten sick while chasing Napoleon's army back into France in 1814 and had crawled into the cave to die. Others thought he was just a freak.

But as more fossils of Neanderthal men were found in other parts of Europe, many scientists began to accept them as an earlier kind of man, a kind that had lived a long time ago. Perhaps there were fossils still buried of even earlier men - "missing links" that were even more like apes.

Men from Java and Peking

A young Dutch doctor named Eugene Dubois was determined to find out. In 1887 he sailed for Java, in the East Indies. Dubois thought that men had probably descended from ape-like creatures in a warm country. He also believed that fossil men would most likely be found where apes were still living. Java is a warm country and the home of the orangutan, one of the great apes. It seemed a likely place to search.

Many people thought he was crazy to go to such trouble to find something that only might exist, but after several years of patient digging, he found the top of a skull. It was low and flat, like the skull of an ape. But it was too big for an ape - and too small for a man.

Nearby, Dubois found a human-looking leg bone. It had belonged to a creature that walked upright. Dubois decided that the skull and the leg bone belonged to the same creature - the missing link he had been searching for. He named it Pithecanthropus erectus, meaning "the ape-man who walked upright." But many scientists wanted more evidence before they would accept Java man as a true early man.

Then, in 1929, a skull was found in Peking, China. Because it was whole, the Peking fossil showed more plainly that its owner had been a man, not an ape. As excavations continued under Dr. Franz Weidenreich, chipped stone tools were found. Not only did these Peking men make tools, but bits of charcoal showed that they used fire as well. They even had clay hearths.

A little later back in Java more skulls were found by a young German scientist, G. H. R. von Koenigswald. When these skulls were placed side by side with the Chinese skulls, they proved to be quite a bit alike. Peking man is now called Pithecanthropus pekinensis, to show that he is quite close to Pithecanthropus erectus.

We now know that these ape-men lived between 500,000 and 250,000 years ago. Their remains have been found in North Africa as well as in China and Java. They were over five feet tall and lived in bands, gathering nuts and berries and hunting deer and other animals.

Starting in 1925, new discoveries were made in South Africa. A fossil skull found by a workman in a quarry was sent to Dr. Raymond Dart, of Johannesburg. Dr. Dart thought that the brain case was too small for the skull to have been a man's and he named his find Australopithecus, or "southern ape".

Yet the creature had some oddly human features. For example, its upper jaw was shaped like a man's and the teeth were small, even, and human-looking. Dr. Dart became more and more convinced that Australopithecus was closely related to man.

In 1936, Dr. Rovert Broom, of Praetoria, South Africa, found another similar skull. Two years later, he came across still another. Since then many more fossils have been found. They show that the Australopithecines, as these creatures are called, walked upright, as we do. Animal remains were found near their bones, which suggests that they were hunters. Stone tools were found nearby, but we don't know for certain that the Australopithecines made them. Animal bones were also found at their campsites and these may have been used as weapons or tools.

What Makes a Man?

What kind of creatures were the Australopithecines? Were they extra-intelligent apes? Or were they early men? The question of what makes a human being is a hard one to answer. We didn't become man all of a sudden. There was a gradual change from "ape-like" to "human-like" to "human," and it took a very long time. The Australopithecines had many characteristics we consider human. For example, they walked upright and their teeth were much like ours.

Upright posture is an important part of being human but there are other things, too. Before we can say that a creature was human, we have to know how he lived. Did he pick up a likely-looking bone to use as a club whenever he happened to find one? Or did he deliberately hunt certain kinds of animals because he knew their bones would make useful tools or clubs? Was he satisfied with the club he found? Or did he know how to split it just so, to make it sharp?

In other words, we want to know if he had foresight, if he could plan his actions ahead. For example, a chimpanzee may pick up a stick to reach something, or he might throw a stone that is handy. But a chimpanzee will not make a tool. He cannot sit down and shape a tool in order to solve a particular problem. Man, then, has been called the tool-maker, because he is the only creature who makes tools.

While the Australopithecines' remains were being discovered, Dr. Leakey was digging for fossils at Olduvai Gorge in East Africa. Olduvai is a narrow canyon, 300 feet deep and 25 miles long. Long ago it was cut by the channel of a river which has long since dried up, exposing layers of fossil-studded mud and sand that had turned into rock with the passing of time.

Ever since 1931 the Leakeys had been digging here. They had found thousands and thousands of fossils of extinct animals - and numerous small chipped stones that must have been used by early man as simple cutting tools. Who had made these tools? Through year after year of patient digging, the Leakeys had found no trace of the early tool-makers.

The Man from Zinj

Then, in 1959, the Leakeys found a skull. It was bigger than an Australopithecine's but smaller than that of modern man. The bone structure of the face looked nearly human, though the forehead was very low. Strangest of all were the giant back teeth. The Leakeys named their discovery Zinjanthropus, "man from East Africa," and his age was fixed at 1,750,000 years, making him the earliest fossil man yet discovered - if he was a man.

Dr. Leakey had found pebble tools along with Zinjanthropus. But as the Olduvai excavations went on, it appeared that the tools had not belonged to Zinjanthropus but to another human-like creature. For, on the same campsite, the four-foot high Homo Habilis was discovered, and Dr. Leakey believes the tools to have been his.

Scientists used to think that each man-like fossil showed a separate step in the development of man. But here were Zinjanthropus and Homo habilis - living side by side. Perhaps Zinjanthropus and the Australopithecines are not our direct ancestors at all. It is more likely that there were several different man-types, all descended from the same ape-like ancestor. Only one of them eventually gave rise to modern man, the others, like Zinjanthropus and the Australopithecines, left no descendants.

Homo habilis may well be our direct ancestor. But he may not. His fossil bones are still being studied and the search for more fossils is still going on. We know much about early man, but there is a great deal more to be learned.

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